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ABSTRACT

A collection of materials for the training of special education resource specialists are presented as the first of four volumes. The materials pertain to California legislation, coordination, inservice programs, consultation, instruction, and career-vocational education. After reviewing provisions of Assembly Bill 777 and Senate Bills 1870 and 769, information is presented on objectives and methods of inservice training, adult workshops, and the improvement of inservice programs. The next section outlines the consulting function and skills of the resource specialist; and approaches to time management, including suggestions for using a daily calendar. A form for daily planning, a pre- and posttest on time management, and an article on resource teacher time utilization are included. The next section presents guidelines for parent conferencing, a list of parent education programs and resources, and three articles on working with parents and individualized education programs. The section on instruction outlines: special education goals; components of auditory, visual, sensori-motor, spatial, temporal, social, and academic skills; information on classrooms organized for auditory, kinesthetic, and visual learners; information on prescriptive teaching; goal statements and objectives of career education; and career education activities for the learning disabled student by level. The final section includes 34 pages of overhead transparencies. (SEW)

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RESOURCE SPECIALIST

Volume I

EC151620

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SPECIAL EDUCATION RESOURCE NETWORK
THE CALIFORNIA STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
PERSONNEL DEVELOPMENT UNIT

RESOURCE SPECIALIST TRAINING RESOURCES

VOLUME I

Developed for the

SPECIAL EDUCATION RESOURCE NETWORK

By

Ruth Wharton Brown

SERN Resource Service Center

Sacramento County Office of Education

Coordinator: Steve Johnson

Funded by the California State Department of Education

Office of Special Education

in cooperation with the Sacramento County Office of Education

I

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INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

This notebook represents an ongoing process of collecting and organizing materials which may be helpful to you in training staff persons to assume the role of resource specialist.

We have chosen to use a three-ring binder which allows you to add materials. We are sure that many of you have a wealth of materials which you have developed over the past years as implementation of the Master Plan evolved from a dream to reality. Therefore, this is not submitted to you as the training but only as supplemental materials.

Much of the information will be useful to you in designing inservice presentations and in providing immediate tools and techniques to regular classroom teachers. Some of the masters for overhead transparencies are also included in the resource specialist training manual from SERN 3 as we worked together and shared resources in the development of the training for the Southwest consortium.

Many items included in this notebook are excerpted from resource specialist handbooks developed by other Master Plan implementors. Credit and thanks are given to Whittier Area Co-op; Tulare County, Santa Barbara County, Contra Costa County, and Riverside County Superintendent of Schools Offices; and Monroe Intermediate School District, Monroe, Michigan.

Ruth Wharton Brown

LEGISLATION

OVERVIEW OF LEGISLATION

OBJECTIVE: Participants will list the major components of SB 1870 and how it relates to Resource Specialist Programs.

CONTENT	ACTIVITY	MEDIA	HANDOUTS
Overview of SB 1870 Title 5 Regulation re: Resource Specialist -2-	Present component of SB 1870 using format below: Implementation Intent | Mandate | Quality Indicators Enlist group participation and input for column three Debrief using filmstrip.	OH #1 - 8 SB 1870 filmstrip and training package from Resource Service Center Conclusion: 8 mm film: "Who's on First" Abbott & Costello Eastin-Phelan Corp. P. O. Box 4528 Davenport, Iowa 52808 (319) 323-9735 cost: $25.00	Fact sheets

AB 777

Legislative Update

AB 777 Section 52860 affects Resource Specialists programs in the following manner:

If a school district and school choose to include within the provisions of this article funds allocated pursuant to Chapter 7 (commencing with Section 56700 of Part 30), the school district shall comply with all requirements of that Part, except that: 1) resource specialist program services and designated instruction and services may be provided to pupils who have not been identified as individuals with exceptional needs.

WILSON RILES
Superintendent of Public Instruction
and Director of Education

MAR 29 1982

STATE OF CALIFORNIA
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
STATE EDUCATION BUILDING, 721 CAPITOL MALL, SACRAMENTO 95814

September 14, 1981

TO: District and County Superintendents

FROM: Davis W. Campbell
Deputy Superintendent for Programs

SUBJECT: EDUCATION PROGRAM PROVISIONS OF AB 777

Assembly Bill 777 (Chapter 100 of the 1981 statutes) was signed by the Governor on June 28, 1981. This bill has been widely recognized for its many important provisions concerning educational finance. The bill also, however, contains a School-Based Program Coordination Act which has considerable significance for the design and operation of school programs. The memorandum is designed to communicate the main features of the Act.

The School-Based Program Coordination Act contains no mandates. It is entirely permissive. Article 1 of the Act establishes the legislative intent:

> It is the intent of the Legislature to provide greater flexibility for schools and school districts to better coordinate the categorical funds they receive while ensuring that schools continue to receive categorical funds to meet their needs.
>
> It is further the intent of the Legislature to focus the authority to exercise such flexibility at the school level, with the approval and under the policy direction of, the governing board.

Article 3 of the Act permits a school and school district to coordinate the use of funds from up to 11 identified state categorical programs at a school with increased flexibility in the use of funds. Part I of this memorandum covers this Article.

Article 2 of the Act permits a school district to request a waiver of nearly any portion of the Education Code except those pertaining to the funding sources covered by Article 3. Part II of this memorandum covers this Article.

The Act becomes effective January 1, 1982. In the next several weeks, the Department will send out administrative instructions for making application under the Act. In the meantime, questions or comments on the provisions of Article 3 should be addressed to Walter F. Denham, Chief, Office of School Support Services at (916) 322-2508. Questions or comments on the provisions of Article 2 should be addressed to Robert Agee, Chief, Fiscal Policy Planning and Analysis Unit at (916) 322-1645.

I. COORDINATED SCHOOL-BASED PROGRAMS (Article 3)

It is important to recognize that under Article 3 the application process used by the district to receive the funds from the Article 3 sources is unchanged. Any student test data or language data or other data previously required in making application for funds is still required. Further, the requirements or options that a school district has in allocating funds to a school remain the same.* What may be different under Article 3 is the use of the funds at a school after they have been allocated to the school.

Article 3 applies to schools that receive funds from one or more of the following:

- School Improvement . . . . . Chapter 6 (commencing with Section 52000) of Part 28
- Economic Impact Aid-State Compensatory Education. . Chapter 1 (commencing with Section 54000) of Part 29
- Miller-Unruh Reading Specialists . . . . . Chapter 2 (commencing with Section 54100) of Part 29
- Gifted and Talented Education . Chapter 8 (commencing with Section 52200) of Part 28
- School Site Special Education . Chapter 7 (commencing with Section 56000) of Part 30
- Conservation Education . . . . Article 4 (commencing with Section 8750) of Chapter 4 of Part 6
- School Staff Development Programs . . . . . Article 1 (commencing with Section 44670) of Chapter 3.1 of Part 25
- Classroom Instructional TV . . Article 15 (commencing with Section 51870) of Chapter 5 of Part 28
- Career Guidance Centers . . . . Article 2 (commencing with Section 52340) of Chapter 9 of Part 28
- New Careers . . . . . Article 5 (commencing with Section 44520) of Chapter 3 of Part 25
- Cadet Corps . . . . . Chapter 1 (commencing with Section 500) of Part 2 of Division 2 of the Military and Veterans Code

*There is a possible interaction with federal funds under ESEA, Title I, or PL 94-142 that will be mentioned later.

Both district-level and school-level affirmative decisions are necessary to use the provisions of Article 3. At the district level, the governing board decides to allow a school to apply under Article 3. At the school level, a school site council decides it wishes to apply. Application is made by the school, through the district, to the State Board of Education.

The steps are:

1. Local board deciding to allow participation
2. Informing the school community
3. Establishing a school site council
4. The council choosing to participate
5. Developing the school plan
6. Local board approval of the plan and submission to the state
7. Review and approval by the State Board of Education

1. Local Board Deciding to Allow Participation

The first step in making application to participate under Article 3 is consideration by the local governing board. If after consideration the board decides it will invite schools to participate, it establishes policies and procedures to guide the distribution of information and the formation of school site councils. The length and specific content of these policies and procedures are optional for the board (assuming they are consistent with the provisions of Article 3).

2. Informing the School Community

When the local board decides to allow participation, it must provide information concerning school-based coordination to the principal of every school that the board wishes to consider for participation under Article 3. The principal must share this information with teachers, other school personnel, parents, and, in secondary schools, students.

3. Establishing a School Site Council

Prior to the development of a plan under Article 3, there must be a school site council. Any school now operating under School Improvement or having a council which meets the membership requirements of School Improvement also meets the council requirements of Article 3. In this case, the existing council automatically becomes the required council. If no such council already exists, the local board must ensure that all interested persons, including but not limited to the principal, teachers, other school personnel, parents, and, in secondary schools, students, have an opportunity to meet in public to establish the council. Membership selection must be done by peers--students selected by students, parents or other community members selected by parents, teachers selected by teachers, other school personnel selected by other school personnel.

At any elementary school:

a. Half the members must be parents or other community members.

b. Half the membership must be school staff, including the principal, teachers, and other school personnel. A majority of this half must be teachers.

At any secondary school:

a. One quarter of the membership must be parents.

b. One quarter of the membership must be students.

c. Half the membership must be school staff, including the principal, teachers, and other school personnel. A majority of this half must be teachers.

Any other school-level committee or council required by law must be maintained and perform its mandated functions. Any state-required advisory committee or council, however, may elect to designate the school site council to function as that advisory committee or council for all purposes required by state statute or regulations for a period of up to two years. Any advisory committee or council required by federal statute or regulation must be maintained and may not have the school site council perform its functions.

4. The Council Choosing to Participate

After the local board indicates that it will allow a school to participate under Article 3, a school site council is formed if one does not already exist. The council's first step is to consider whether or not it wishes to participate. If it does, the council, under such policies as have been adoptedby the board, must first choose which of the funds the school has been allocated from the 11 sources it wishes to include in its school-based coordinated program. It may choose only one, certain ones, or all.

It may be that one or more of the funding sources to be included is presently used only in certain grades. (The most common examples of this are School Improvement for kindergarten through grade three only or State Compensatory Education for only some grades.) The council may choose to operate under Article 3 only for those grades or to include all grades in the school in its Article 3 participation.

If the council previously existing as a K-3 school site council under School Improvement chooses to include all grades under Article 3, it must then be reformed so that parents and staff representing all grade levels select the members who will develop the school plan under Article 3.

5. Developing the School Plan

Once the council has identified the funding sources and the grade levels to participate, it must develop a school program plan, including budgeting the funds for all sources that are included under Article 3. If there is already a comprehensive school program plan for the school, it may be modified as needed to meet the requirements of Article 3.

The plan must include:

a. Curricula, instructional strategies and materials responsive to the individual needs and learning styles of each pupil.

b. Instructional and auxiliary services to meet the special needs of non-English-speaking or limited-English-speaking pupils, including instruction in a language these pupils understand; educationally disadvantaged pupils; gifted and talented pupils; and pupils with exceptional needs.

c. A staff development program for teachers, other school personnel, paraprofessionals, and volunteers.

d. Ongoing evaluation of the educational program of the school.

e. Other activities and objectives as established by the council.

f. The proposed expenditures of funds available to the school from the funding sources the council chose to include in the coordinated school-based program.

For funds used under Article 3, the provisions of the funding source statutes or regulations are entirely replaced by the Article 3 requirements. The requirements under Article 3 pertaining to the individual funding sources are:

- School Improvement

  The provisions of Article 3 completely replace the provisions of School Improvement. In comparing Article 3 with School Improvement, it is clear that any school plan which currently meets the provisions of School Improvement will also meet those of Article 3.

  Because the program developed under Article 3 may be for the total school population, schools now funded for K-3 only under School Improvement may use those funds for the whole school program (all grade levels in the school). Article 3 additionally provides explicitly that such schools will not lose their eligibility for School Improvement expansion funding should such funds become available.

- Economic Impact Aid-State Compensatory Education

Article 3 allows Economic Impact Aid (EIA) funds to be included in the school-based coordinated program. While the EIA statute provides funds to districts under a single formula, the provisions of the Title 5 Administrative Code require the district to divide the funds into EIA-State Compensatory Education (EIA-SCE) and EIA-limited-English-proficient (EIA-LEP) allocations to schools. The requirements for services to LEP students, however, are contained in AB 507 (1980) and are not affected by AB 777. None of the requirements for serving LEP students may be removed or replaced when EIA-LEP funds are coordinated under Article 3. With this in mind, EIA-LEP funds may be coordinated under Article 3 if EIA-SCE funds are also coordinated under Article 3.

When EIA-SCE funds are coordinated under Article 3, however, the provisions of Article 3 completely replace the EIA-SCE provisions. (NOTE: ESEA, Title I, requirements remain fully in effect. Further, the use of SCE funds under Article 3 complicates the district's allocation of both Title I and SCE funds to schools. Because of the complications, the Department recommends not considering the use of SCE funding under Article 3 prior to the 1982-83 school year.) The Department will provide further instructions and advice in this area in the coming weeks.

State Compensatory Education funds may be included under Article 3 at a school if, and only if, either:

a. There is state funding (EIA-LEP plus EIA-SCE) for disadvantaged students for 75 percent of the students at the school (in the grade levels with compensatory education programs), or

b. The total amount of EIA-LEP plus EIA-SCE and state and local funds over and above the base funding at the school allocated for educationally disadvantaged students equals 75 percent of the product of the total school enrollment (or the enrollment of those grades with compensatory education programs) times the educationally disadvantaged per capita funding rate at the school. As an example, assume 1,000 students at a school with EIA funds at the rate of $500 allocated for 600 educationally disadvantaged students, giving $300,000 total of EIA funds. As 75 percent times 1,000 times $500 equals $375,000, state and local funds above the base totaling $375,000 minus $300,000 equals $75,000 would have to be allocated to the school to allow the State Compensatory Education funds to be coordinated under Article 3. All or part of the $75,000 could be other funds coordinated under Article 3. If less than $75,000 were available, the district would have to allocate the difference.

- Miller-Unruh

The funds must be used to hire a reading specialist using the existing criteria for hiring. However, the role of the person hired is then determined by the council as it develops the school plan under Article 3.

- Gifted and Talented Education

  The local board decides whether and how much gifted and talented funding is allocated to the school. Once allocated to the school, such funds are budgeted by the council as it develops the school plan under Article 3. Article 3 includes a provision that existing district gifted and talented advisory committees be maintained.

- Special Education

  All the provisions of special education statutes stay intact under Article 3 except that:

  a. Resource specialist program services and designated instruction and services may be provided to pupils who have not been identified as individuals with exceptional needs.

  b. Programs for individuals with exceptional needs must be under the direction of credentialed special education personnel, but services may be provided entirely by personnel not funded by special education monies, provided that all services specified in the individualized education program (IEP) are received by the pupil.

  The budgeting of special education funds is not affected by Article 3. Rather, the Article increased flexibility in the way both regular and special education staff members are used. (There may be some difficulty in the more flexible provision of services, however, because of the involvement of federal PL 94-142 funds. Because of this, the Department recommends that such personnel continue to be used as they are presently until clarification can be obtained. The Department will provide further instruction and advice in the coming weeks.)

- Conservation Education
- New Careers
- School Staff Development (AB 551, Article 1)
- Classroom Instructional TV
- Career Guidance Centers*
- Cadet Corps

} The district allocates funds to the schools according to the provisions of the funding source. The funds are then used under the provisions of Article 3.

Other provisions of Article 3 affecting the development of the school plan are:

a. If the school site council chooses to include EIA funds in its coordinated program, it must consult with any school bilingual advisory committee required by law prior to submitting its plan to the local governing board. If the bilingual advisory committee

*There are no funds available for Career Guidance Centers at this time.

objects to the plan, written copies of the committee's objections must be attached to the plan when it is submitted. Decisions of the school site council and the local governing board are nonetheless final concerning what is submitted to the State Board of Education for its review and approval.

b. Article 3 allows the council, as part of its school plan, to request released time not to exceed eight days for each participating staff member during the regular school year to advise students or conduct staff development programs, with the district receiving full average daily attendance reimbursement for those days. As Article 3 covers the entire school program, staff in all grade levels may be included regardless of the allocations of funds to the school (e.g., School Improvement for kindergarten through grade three only).

c. In the preparation of the coordinated school program plan, the school site council may request, under Article 2 of the Act, to waive all or part of any section of the Education Code with certain limited exceptions. These exceptions are noted in Part II of the memorandum.

6. Local Board Approval of the Plan and Submission to the State

The school site council submits its recommended plan, including any waiver request and any request for released time to advise students or conduct staff development to the local board. The board reviews and approves or disapproves the plan. If approving, the board submits the plan to the State Board of Education; if disapproving, the board communicates specific reasons for its disapproval to the council, after which the council alters the plan in response to the reasons for its disapproval and submits it again to the board.

7. Review and Approval by the State Board of Education

The State Board of Education reviews and approves or disapproves the coordinated school-based plan. The review criteria will be based entirely on the provisions of the Act and any regulations which may be adopted. Also, there will be program quality and fiscal reviews very similar to program reviews currently conducted for schools receiving School Improvement; ESEA, Title I; or EIA-SCE funds.

In line with current practice, districts are encouraged to form consortia for conducting program reviews of educational programs utilizing consolidated application funding or for providing program development assistance and reviewing school site plans, or both. Details of consortia formation are contained in the Assistance Guide for Forming a Consortium to Improve School Programs.

II. EDUCATION CODE WAIVERS (Article 2)

Increased flexibility for school programs using funds from the sources covered by Article 3 is provided by that article. The School-Based Program Coordination Act also includes an Article 2 which allows for greatly increased district and/or school flexibility for virtually all other parts of the Education Code.

Article 2 provides that a local governing board may request the waiver of any section of the Education Code, apart from Article 3 or the section pertaining to the funding sources covered by Article 3, with only two specific limitations:

- The identification and assessment criteria relating to any categorical aid program must be continued.
- The employee rights and school finance provisions specified in Education Code Section 52033 must be maintained.

The State Board of Education is required to grant the waiver unless it specifically finds one of the following:

1. The educational needs of the pupils are not adequately addressed.
2. The waiver affects a program which requires the existence of a school site council and the school site council did not approve the request.
3. The appropriate advisory committee did not have an adequate opportunity to review the request. Further, for a request to waive a requirement pertaining to programs for limited-English-proficient students, the request did not include a written summary of objections, if any, to the request made by the bilingual advisory committee required pursuant to Section 52176.
4. Pupil and teacher protection is jeopardized.
5. Guarantee of parental involvement is jeopardized.
6. The request would substantially increase state costs.
7. The exclusive representative of employees, if any, as provided in Chapter 10.7 (commencing with Section 3540) of Division 4 of Title 1 of the Government Code, was not a participant in the development of the waiver.

Furthermore, a complete and documented waiver request is automatically approved for one year if it is not acted on by the State Board of Education within two of its meetings following receipt.

DWC:cw

SB 1870

July 28, 1980, is a significant date which represents the signing of Senate Bill 1870, the California Master Plan for Special Education, by Governor Brown. The law is considered to be one of the monumental pieces of legislation of this decade. Unlike previous special education legislation, SB 1870 is rooted in the philosophy that we provide the services with the wisdom and foresight that each handicapped individual has a future in our future. They, too, have gifts. Section 56001 cites the intents of the Legislature, which will be realized throughout the state of California. As we train staff to implement this bill, we must constantly reflect on the intents of the Legislature.

ARTICLE I - INTENT

56000. The Legislature funds and declares that all individuals with exceptional needs have a right to participate in free appropriate public education and that special educational instruction and services for these persons are needed in order to ensure them of the right to an appropriate educational opportunity to meet their unique needs.

It is the intent of the Legislature to unify and improve special education programs in California under the flexible program design of the Master Plan for Special Education. It is the further intent of the Legislature to assure that all individuals with exceptional needs are provided their rights to appropriate programs and services which are designed to meet their unique needs under Public Law 94-142.

It is the further intent of the Legislature that nothing in this part shall be construed to abrogate any right provided individuals with exceptional needs and their parents or guardians under Public Law 94-142.

It is the further intent of the Legislature that the Master Plan for Special Education provide an educational opportunity for individuals with exceptional needs which is equal to or better than that provided prior to the implementation of programs under this part, including, but not limited to, those provided to individuals previously served in a development center for handicapped pupils.

It is the intent of the Legislature that the restructuring of special education be implemented in accordance with provisions of this part during a two year transitional period commencing with fiscal year 1980-81, with full implementation to be completed by June 30, 1982.

56001. It is the intent of the Legislature that special education programs provide all of the following:

(a) Each individual with exceptional needs is assured an education appropriate to his or her needs in publicly supported programs through completion of his or her prescribed course of study or until such time that he or she has met proficiency standards prescribed pursuant to Sections 51215 and 52326.

(b) Early educational opportunities are available to all children between the ages of three and four years and nine months who require intensive special education and services.

(c) Early educational opportunities may be made available to children younger than three years of age who require intensive special education and services and their parents.

(d) Any child younger than four years and nine months, potentially eligible for special education shall be afforded the protections provided by this part and by federal law commencing with his or her referral for special education instruction and services.

(e) Each individual with exceptional needs shall have his or her educational goals, objectives, and special education and related services specified in a written individualized education program.

(f) Education programs are provided under an approved local plan for special education which sets forth the elements of the programs in accordance with the provisions of this part. This plan for special education shall be developed cooperatively with input from the community advisory committee and appropriate representation from special and regular teachers and administrators selected by the groups they represent to ensure effective participation and communications.

(g) Individuals with exceptional needs are offered special assistance programs which promote maximum interaction with the general school population in a manner which is appropriate to the needs of both.

(h) Pupils be transferred out of special education programs when special education services are no longer needed.

(i) The unnecessary use of labels is avoided in providing special education and related services for individuals with exceptional needs.

(j) Procedures and materials for assessment and placement of individuals with exceptional needs shall be selected and administered so as not to be racially, culturally, or sexually discriminatory. No single assessment instrument shall be the sole criterion for determining placement of a pupil. Such procedures and materials for assessment and placement shall be in the individual's mode of communication. Procedures and materials for use with non-English-speaking and limited-English-speaking pupils as defined in subdivisions (d) and (e) of Section 52163, shall be in the individual's primary language. All assessment materials and procedures shall be selected and administered pursuant to Section 56320.

(k) Educational programs are coordinated with other public and private agencies, including preschools, child development programs, nonpublic, nonsectarian schools, regional occupational centers and programs and postsecondary and adult programs for individuals with exceptional needs.

(l) Psychological and health services for individuals with exceptional needs shall be available to each school site.

(m) Continuous evaluation of the effectiveness of these special education programs by the school district, special education services region, or county office shall be made to insure the highest quality educational offerings.

(n) Appropriate qualified staff are employed, consistent with credentialing requirements, to fulfill the responsibilities of the local plan and that positive efforts to employ qualified handicapped individuals are made.

(o) Regular and special education personnel are adequately prepared to provide educational instruction and services to individuals with exceptional needs.

OVERVIEW OF SB 769

Four Major Parts of SB 1870

Program Mandates

Includes all requirements of PL 94-142, referral, assessment, Individualized Education Program (IEP) development. Descriptive of program options - special classes, Resource Specialist Program (RSP), Designated Instruction and Services (DIS) and nonpublic schools. Includes discription of program specialists and regionalized services.

Entitlements

Methods and formulas used to determine the level of funding agencies are entitled to. Includes description of funding for Instructional Personnel Services (IPS) units. Funding caps (service proportions), support services ratio, regionalized services, etc.

It was an attempt for the first time to have entitlements based on each Local Education Agency's (LEA) own needs. Always before, a statewide average was used.

Revenues for Special Education from Five Sources

1. Federal (PL 94-142) entitlements
2. Revenue limits per ADA for special classes
3. Calculated general fund contribution
4. Property taxes assigned (counties only)
5. Special education allowances

Expenditures

The actual cost of the program needed to meet the mandates and provide an appropriate program for all handicapped individuals.

PROBLEMS WITH THIS SYSTEM IN 1980/81:

1. Very few in state understood how the funding system worked and its relationship to the program and the mandates.
2. Forms used to assure entitlements were very late in development.
3. As a brand new system it was highly confusing.
4. Most important of all, the revenues needed for the entitlements were underestimated by about 120 million dollars.

What did the Legislature do about this?

1. Through SB 639 they appropriated $30 million of additional state funds to help cover the deficit.

2. Decided to pass a bill that would eliminate or at least greatly reduce the deficit.

What was the result?

1. SB 769

2. Attempts to remedy the situation by reducing the entitlements.

3. It is an entitlement reduction bill. It didn't add any revenues, and it eliminated almost no program mandates.

What about the effect on the expenditure or costs?

1. That problem was left up to the LEA. If costs exceed the revenues, then LEA's must make it up from additional general funds.

DESCRIPTION OF SEVERELY HANDICAPPED AND NON-SEVERELY HANDICAPPED

Severely Handicapped (as defined by Education Code Section 56030.5)

Disability must be "profound."

Disability must be one of the following:

Autism
Blindness
Deafness
Severe Orthopedic Impairments
Serious Emotional Distrubance
Severe Mental Retardation
Individuals who would have been in Development Centers

1. Definition has fiscal effect in three ways, so it is very important to define units correctly.

   (a) Different support ratio funding for severely and non-severely handicapped.

   (b) Different aide funding for severely and non-severely handicapped units.

   (c) Different level of extended year funding for severely and non-severely handicapped.

2. Why the Legislature differentiated between severely and non-severely handicapped:

   (a) Basically the special education community was able to convince the Legislature that programs for severely handicapped should be protected from some of the cuts in entitlements.

   (b) An example is the support ratio squeeze. Could have cut across the board at a lesser level and gotten the same fiscal savings. However, they decided to cut non-severely handicapped more drastically.

3. Intent of the Legislature was to have severely handicapped affect only special day classes, but the way it is written it affects all IPS units.

4. In the instructions on J-50 forms are definitions for each of the three settings:

   (a) Special classes:

   A class enrolling at least 2/3 of pupils defined as severely handicapped.

   OR

   If less than 2/3 must be able to demonstrate that the severely handicapped pupils in that class result in the need for extensive additional support above that in non-severely handicapped special classes.

   (b) DIS:

   Caseload must consist of at least 2/3 severely handicapped as defined in the bill.

   (c) Resource specialist:

   Programmatically we do not believe that you could define a resource specialist program IPS unit as severely handicapped.

5. Special caution:

   (a) Legislative staff and control agencies will be looking very closely at the number of IPS units that are classified as severely handicapped throughout the state. The Department will be doing some projections to compare with at P-1. If it comes in inordinately high, I'm sure the Legislature will take immediate action.

THE EFFECT OF SB 769 ON KEY AREAS

The major reduction in entitlements is from the following:

GROWTH RESTRICTIONS AND DISINCENTIVES

SUPPORT SERVICES REDUCTIONS

AIDE REDUCTIONS

EXTENDED SCHOOL YEAR REDUCTION

GROWTH RESTRICTIONS

Overall Growth

Limits growth of Instructional Personnel Units in an LPA to 50% of the difference between where it was in 1980/81 and where it could be at full funding (10% cap provisions).

Class Loading

Requires that if an LEA wants to grow (within the 50% requirement), you must operate IPS units at certain averages either in the LEA or across the plan.

Thus if you want to grow in special classes, prior semester average must be 9.

In resource specialist and DIS, prior semester average must be 22.

In addition to prior semester averages, you must have pupils above the average to fill new units - need 6 for special class, 16 for DIS and resource specialist.

Growth Disincentives

In order to discourage growth in DIS, any new DIS unit added after 1980/81 only receives 50% of newly calculated and squeezed support ratio.

SUPPORT SERVICES REDUCTION

Recalculation

1. All LEA's will need to recalculate their support ratios:

   (a) The bill requires that all LEAs limit their indirect cost at 4%.

   (b) It mandates that you deduct any regionalized service costs (including program specialists) that you incurred in 1979/80. (Clarifies that this deduction is for both Master Plan and non-Master Plan entities in 1979/80. Maximum deduction is $30.00.)

   (c) Requires that you deduct any tuition paid in 1979/80 that was not paid in 1980/81.

   (d) When these deductions are made, you will be allowed to also reduce your general fund contribution.

   (e) All this will require the statewide average to be recalculated.

Squeeze

1. These newly calculated support ratios will be subject to a squeeze.

   (a) This squeeze results in the most significant reductions of entitlements in the bill.

2. Severely Handicapped Instructional Personnel Service Units

   (a) If the support services ratio for the district or county is greater than 1.5 times the statewide average, it shall be reduced to 1.5 times the statewide average for 1981/82, and shall remain fixed in subsequent years.

   (b) If the support services ratio for the district or county is at or below 1.5 times the statewide average, it shall remain unchanged for 1981/82 and in subsequent years.

3. Non-severely Handicapped Instructional Personnel Service Units

(a) If the support services ratio for the district or county is greater than 1.5 times the statewide average, it shall be reduced to 1.5 times the statewide average in 1981/82, and in subsequent years shall be reduced by 0.1 until it reaches 1.15 times the statewide average.

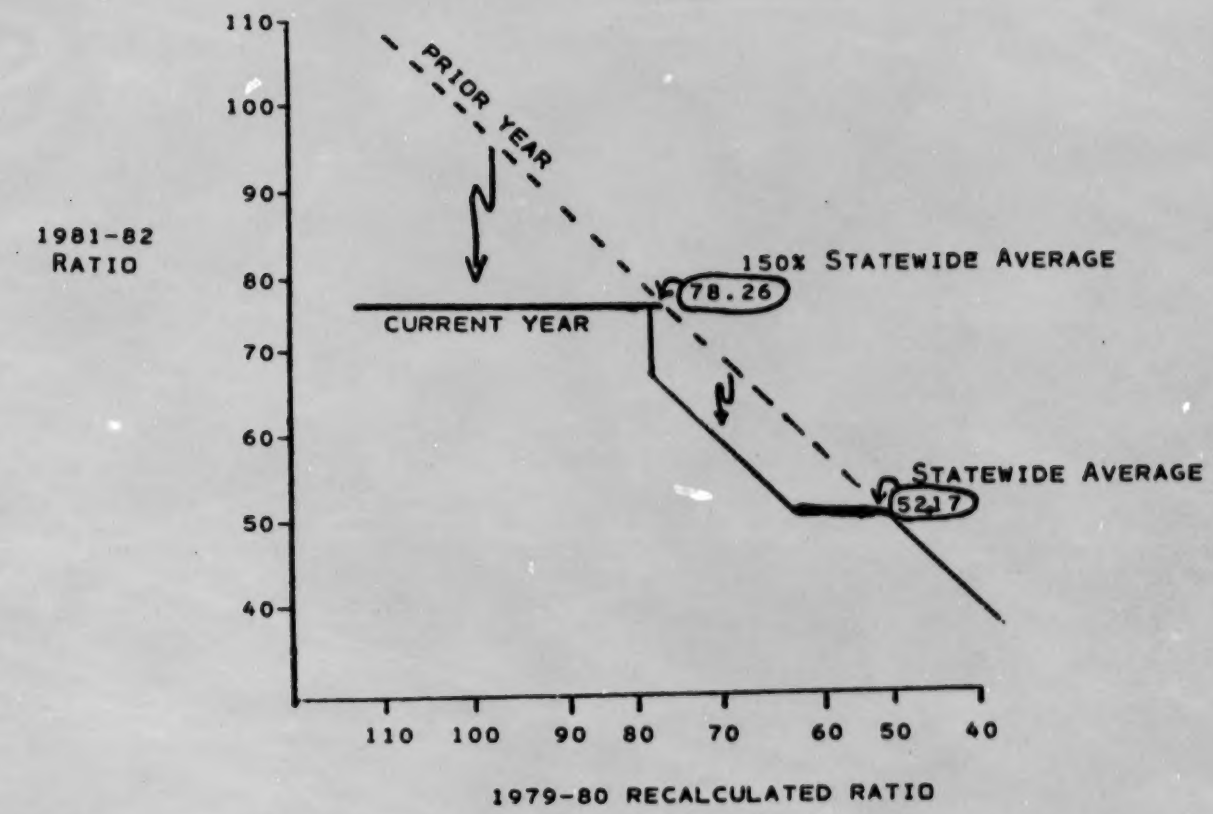
(b) If the support services ratio for the district or county is less than 1.5 times the statewide average, but greater than the average, the ratio shall be reduced by 0.1 in 1981/82 and in subsequent years until it reaches the statewide average.

(c) If the support services ratio for the district or county is less than the statewide average, it shall remain fixed for 1981/82 and for subsequent years.

4.. Any district or county office that did not have a support services ratio shall have an average ratio. (EC 56737 (b)(4))

SUPPORT SERVICE RATIO SQUEEZE

NON SEVERELY HANDICAPPED



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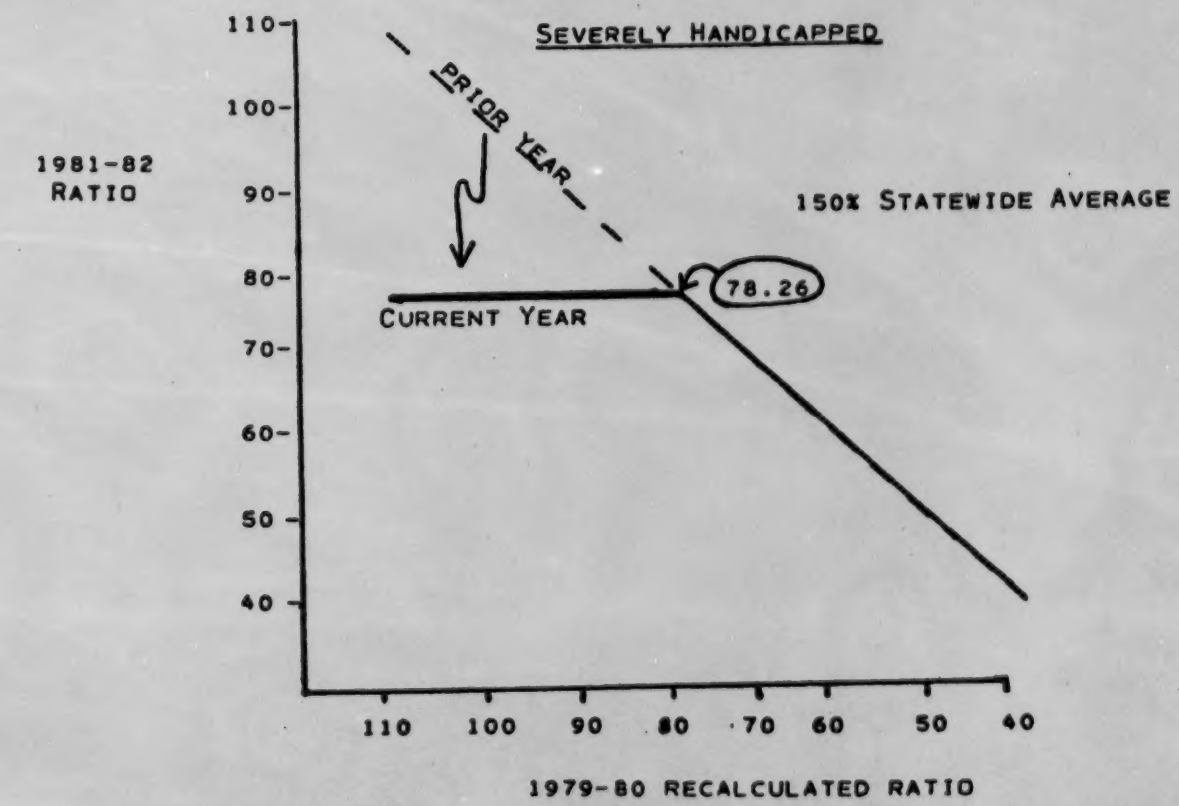


EXAMPLES OF SUPPORT SERVICE

RATIO SQUEEZE

Estimated Statewide Average	52.17%	
150% of Statewide Average	78.27%	
District A		
Prior Year Recalculated Ratio	85.32%	
1981-82 Ratios		
Severely Handicapped	78.26%	(7.06)
Non-Severely Handicapped	78.26%	(7.06)
District B		
Prior Year Recalculated Ratio	77.00%	
1981-82 Ratios		
Severely Handicapped	77.00%	
Non-Severely Handicapped	67.00%	(10.00)
District C		
Prior Year Recalculated Ratio	55.50%	
1981-82 Ratios		
Severely Handicapped	55.50%	
Non-Severely Handicapped	52.17%	(3.33)

AIDE REDUCTION

Severely Handicapped

1. No fiscal or program change.

Non-Severely Handicapped Including RSP

1. Fiscal change:

   (a) District is entitled to a unit rate of 85% of prior year unit rate. Note: Prior year unit rate is based on 1979/80 full-time equivalency or six hours, whichever is greater.

   (b) The effect is to reduce aide hours by 15% of the entitlement in SB 1870.

2. Program change:

   (a) In 1980/81 all resource specialists were required to have an aide.

   (b) Under SB 769 only 80% are required to have aides.

EXTENDED SCHOOL YEAR REDUCTIONS

Applies to extended year just completed, as well as in the future.

Severely Handicapped

1. No changes.

Non-Severely Handicapped

1. 85% of full-time equivalency of aide.
2. .6 or 60% of calculated unit rate.
3. 50% of new recalculated support ratio (after squeeze).

OTHER REDUCTIONS

Program Specialist and Regionalized Services

1. Changes mandate for program specialists from 1 per 560 handicapped individuals to 1 per 850. Reduces funding from SB 1870 entitlement from $63.00 per handicapped individual to $44.00.

   For regionalized services, reduces funding in LPA from $30.00 per handicapped individual to $25.00.

Prior Year Balances

1. Requires that when you compare the revenues you receive under SB 1870 and your 1980/81 expenditures, if revenues exceeded expenditures you must count this excess as income in 1981/82. (Currently this only applies to this one year.)

Inflation Factor Reduction

1. Reduces 6% inflation factor in AB 777 to 5%.

Transfer of Programs

If programs are transferred from districts to counties or districts to districts, State Superintendent must approve, and if there is an additional cost to state, district transferring program must reduce revenue limits accordingly.

Transfer of Transportation to County Office

State Superintendent must give approval - only may approve if less costly to the state or there is a reduction in total mileage.

OTHER AREAS OF INTEREST

Infant Program

1. Programs that operated in 1980/81 must continue. Additional DIS units are available if in 1981 you were at or above 10% caps or specific setting cap.

Nonpublic Schools

1. All new placements must be reviewed by local board.
2. Any placement that is 100% above special class cost must be reported to the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

New Placements of Individuals that Cost More than $20,000

1. Must be reported to State Superintendent for recommendations.

EFFECTIVE DATES OF SB 769

Entire Year

1. Recalculation of support ratios - including 4% cap on indirect charges.
2. Support ratio squeeze.
3. Growth limitations and class loading requirements.
4. New DIS units above 1980/81 levels only receive 50% of recalculated support ratio.
5. Use of 1980/81 ending balances as income for 1981/82.
6. Infant allocation of additional DIS units.
7. Program specialist and regionalized services funding costs.
8. Severely handicapped section.
9. Extended year provisions.
10. Change in resource specialist aide mandate.
11. 85% funding for non-severely handicapped and resource specialist aides.

January 1, 1982

1. Transfer of program or transportation.

2. Waiver of loading requirements for sparsely populated LPA.

3. Requirement to report to local board all new nonpublic school placements.

4. Requirement to report to the state all new placements exceeding a cost of $20,000.

5. Section on reporting those nonpublic school placements that exceed by 100% the cost of a special class placement in the LEA.

   (The section that requires future contracts for these pupils to not exceed the inflation rate for special education will not take effect until 1982/83.)

6. Specified protections for rights of certificated employees if local plan is reorganized.

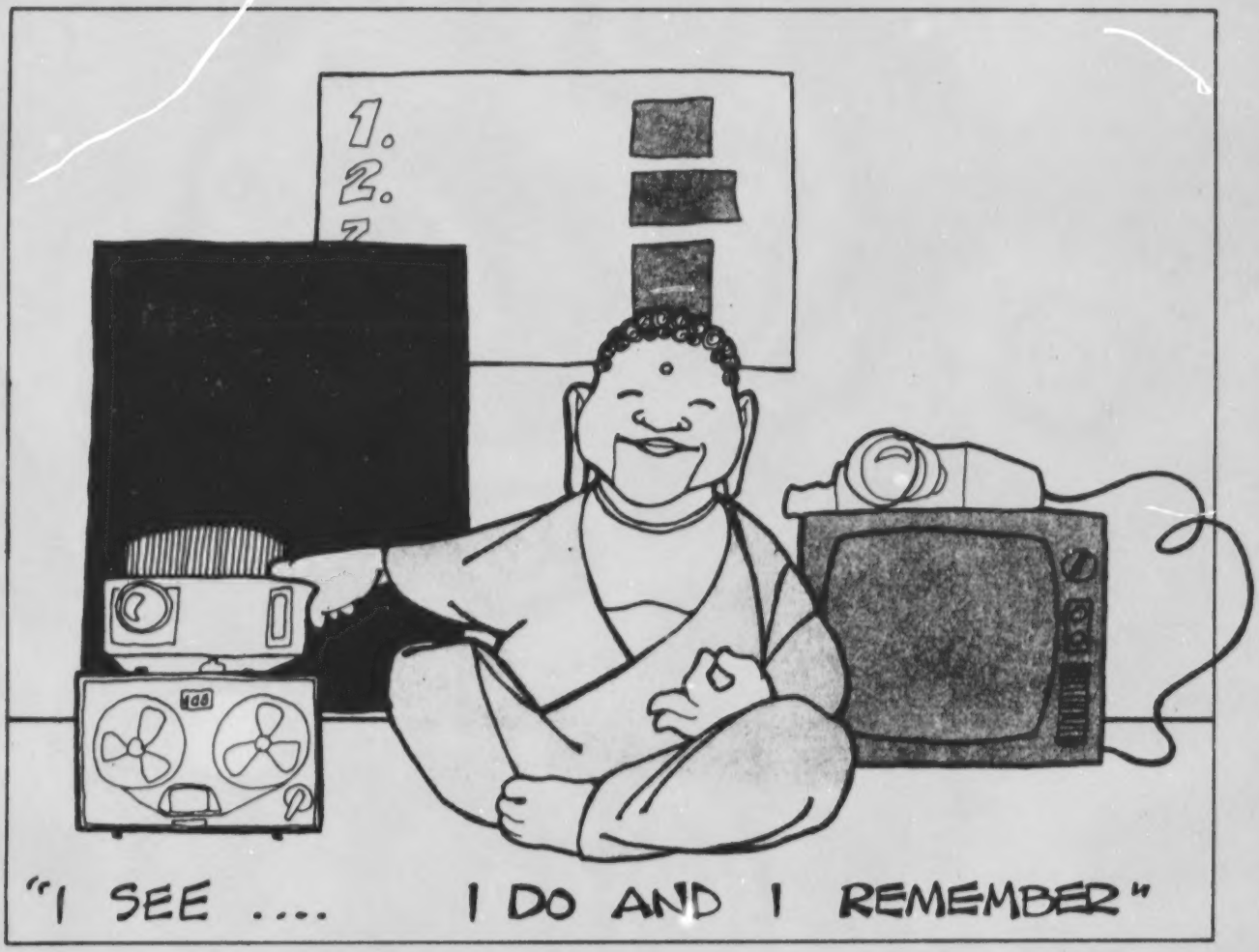
California State Department of Education, 1981.

COORDINATION & INSERVICE

Coordination -- Inservice Workshops

The Resource Specialist shall demonstrate the following skills, knowledge and performance competencies, coordinate special education inservice workshops and workshops for staff and/or parents.

CONTENT	ACTIVITY	MEDIA	HANDOUTS
Discuss the myriad of activities that could be called inservice; i.e., one-to-one teacher consultation, small groups, etc. Discuss the role of the Resource Specialist in inservice and staff development--also other local and state services. Discuss how adults learn. Include content on workshops from White & Blackburn already in your files. * Add any services local to your area on the sheet for parent resources.	Workshop Assumption Inventory --Use as springboard activity to generate discussion and clear away preconceived expectations re: workshops. Brainstorm ideas for gathering needs assessment data. Develop a workshop or inservice activity for presentation at their local site. Design an evaluation format for presenting outcomes to group and sharing ideas, content, etc.	Transparencies #9 through #16	Inservice Planning Shee Workshop Elements Activities Booklet Adults and Effective Workshop Checklist and inservice planning sheets


1.
2.
"I SEE .... I DO AND I REMEMBER"

INSERVICE TRAINING

As the resource specialist works to effect change, he/she may discover some needs for group inservice training for members of the school staff. In meeting training demands, the resource specialist should provide a brief overview of the inservice education goals and techniques.

GENERAL AIMS OF INSERVICE TRAINING

There are three general aims or purposes for inservice training.

1. Orientation or awareness sessions--The goal of this type of session is to have participants obtain greater awareness of a product, an idea, or an approach. An example would be a presentation entitled "Overview of the Master Plan for Special Education," delivered to school and community members. Awareness programs are important, because changing attitudes may be the best step towards changing technique.

2. Knowledge or skill training--This type of training is designed to increase the participants' skill or knowledge in implementing a particular technique. "Writing an Instructional Plan" could be the title of a skill training session for special education personnel.

3. Observable change in professional functioning--The emphasis of this type of training is visible change and growth in the participants' on-the-job functioning. This type of training occurs when the trainer supervises and assists in the implementation of behavior management techniques in the trainee's classroom.

Resource specialists may be involved in developing and implementing all of these types of inservice training for special education, regular education, and parents.

METHODS OF PROVIDING INSERVICE TRAINING

In general, all activities of school personnel which result in continued professional growth are considered to be inservice education. Workshops, conferences, institutes, college courses, visitations, and self-contained packages are among the various forms of inservice education; each one differs in the degree of learner and presenter participation. Visitations are almost entirely participant-oriented; conferences, institutes, and workshops may use a wide variety of participant-instructor involvement ratios. Each would also make use of the following methods:

1. Lecture--The lecture is usually the most frequently used method for providing inservice education. The presenter delivers the message, while the audience sits and listens for varying periods of time. The lecture may be enlivened by the use of demonstrations or visual aids, such as films or slides. In general, lectures are probably the least effective means for engendering professional improvement, although they can be used effectively for awareness purposes.

2. Small group sessions--Small groups can increase the feeling of safety and willingness to take risks by the participants. Participants can indicate if they are experiencing difficulties, and there is enough

flexibility to allow feelings to be discussed. In addition, the small group allows for cooperative learning. The small group experience can be especially important during a conference and institute. Individuals can use the small group for individual questioning, idea sharing, and mutual support. It may also become a relevant peer group for one's commitment to action.

Small groups can be used for a variety of activities. Among these are:

a) Discussions--This technique can be used for developing awareness or for summarizing a learning experience. The group discussion centers around a particular content area and may be used to allow the participants to explore their attitudes, opinions, and experiences. The discussion leader can usually develop discussion by asking participants substantive questions and the reasons for their particular statements.

b) Actual practice with the content of instruction--Actual practice with instructional content leads to the development of small group tasks. These tasks provide for active learning on the part of participants and must be planned so that they can be accomplished in the time allotted (from 10 to 30 minutes), and immediate feedback can be provided.

c) Demonstration--When materials are not generally available for practice and implementation in small groups, demonstrations can be an effective alternative. They can be particularly useful for awareness and pre-trial evaluations of new materials and techniques.

d) Instructional games--Instructional games present a structured activity with established rules. Two or more participants interact to achieve clearly designated training objectives.

e) Simulations--A simulation presents a simplified model of the real world. Participants may be involved in decision-making or problem-solving roles under specified conditions.

Role-playing is a type of simulation. It normally involves unrehearsed dramatization presented before a group. A discussion usually follows the performance, in order to fully analyze the situation and behavioral variables. Most role-playing situations involve problems centering around people, their actions, and attitudes.

Brainstorming can be considered a pseudo-simulation. A problem is specified to which the participant must react. Simulations yield replicable results; however, the results of brainstorming vary depending on the participants and local demands.

f) Simulation games--Simulation games provide a combination of games and simulations. Decision-making and real life elements are combined with definitions and rules for interaction.

g) Card sort--A card sort involves sorting a deck of prepared cards into prescribed patterns. Examples of such patterns are sorting into a hierarchy of importance, sorting into a sequence of steps, or sorting into specified categories.

Some basic principles for the effective use of small groups at conferences are:

1) Choose your group leaders carefully. Their skill at facilitating someone else's learning is more important than their expertise in the skill or idea being taught.

2) The ideal size for a small group seems to be between 5 and 10. Less than five seems to make the participants feel uncomfortable. More than 10 becomes cumbersome and slows the process.

3) Except at times when the conference process calls for a team interaction, assign people to small groups with people other than those from their own district or school if possible. This seems to forestall the natural tendency of persons of lesser status to defer to people of higher status in their districts.

4) When appropriate to the content being presented, ask all of the non-teacher members of the group to assume the role of the teacher of a hypothetical class--if this is the focus of the content being presented.

5) Don't switch people from one group to another once the groups have begun. It is important that each group assume responsibility for its own success as a group. If you step in and remove or add people to a group that has already begun to operate, you threaten this process.

6) After you have made it clear that you and the presenter(s) are available at any time for further information or clarification, stay out of the small groups unless specifically invited to come in. Group process seems to stop when an "outsider" comes in, even if the outsider's presence is well-intended.

7) Keep others from entering the small groups. This can be especially hard on "visiting firemen" who simply want to get an idea of how things are going.

PLANNING INSERVICE EDUCATION PROGRAMS

1. Determining a need for inservice programs. The first step in developing an inservice program is assessing the target population's training need. A resource specialist may receive individual requests for inservice programs, but before she/he initiates implementation, she/he may wish to determine how general the need for a particular topic is.

   The resource specialist can obtain information about training needs of the school in several ways. She/he may canvass the administration, department heads, and teachers for an indication of general faculty needs individually or at meetings. She/he may distribute a survey or preference scale to area teachers, with the returns analyzed for high priority topics.

   Direct discussions may not be feasible, but a coordinating body or task force made up of representatives from various content areas and specialized services could jointly develop inservice programs. This group could

collect requests from school staff, parents, students, and community groups, determine which needs are most immediate, develop associated training objectives, and seek out the most appropriate source for providing the necessary training.

2. Determining content areas. Probably the most immediate result of a needs survey will be the determination of high priority content areas. For example, it may be determined that awareness level training on special education services available to children with exceptional needs is needed by parents and community agencies. Teachers and other specialists may have needs in the area of implementing specialized techniques.

3. Developing objectives. Once the basic areas of inservice training content have been determined, a critical first step in planning is the development of objectives. These objectives should be competency-based, i.e., stated in terms of the resulting desired behavior of the participants with evaluation criteria.

   If the group to be trained is small enough, the participants may actually set the objectives themselves. If the resource specialist decides on this approach, there may be a greater pay-off in participants' commitment to achieve the objectives. The presenter should be aware, however, that participants have to be motivated to set their own objectives and that they are likely to need guidance and encouragement.

4. Selecting and scheduling activities. After objectives have been established and a general timeline for all planning, implementing and evaluating activities has been determined, the actual activities need to be selected and scheduled. An analysis of the objectives should result in an appropriate selection of associated methods of delivery, such as lectures, panel, demonstration, small groups, etc. The medium used needs to be determined by the message to be conveyed. Once the activities have been determined, the human and material resources can be selected. The need for presenters, panel members, and group leaders can be decided upon. The effectiveness of using audio-visual aids, such as videotapes, filmstrips, slides, tapes, transparencies, chalkboards, or flip charts can be determined and their preparation included on the timeline. Learning activities and tasks can be designed, if needed for the learning process.

5. Conducting the inservice program. Tips for smooth implementation include:

   a) Use handouts as a resource and reminder of essential information and activities.
   b) Adhere to the time schedule.
   c) Allow participants opportunities to discuss and apply new information and skills.
   d) If learning activities are used, arrange for sufficient assistance until all participants have completed the activity to their satisfaction.
   e) Provide immediate feedback to participants regarding their success in the learning activities.
   f) Involve the entire staff in inservice education--principals, counselors, teachers. They will be able to form their own support and resource groups at the local school later.

g) Remember that administrative support is essential and can add authority to your program.
h) Plan for additional support after the training, such as presentation summaries, related bibliographies, lists of resources and materials, and referrals to resource personnel and programs.
i) Try to arrange for a comfortable, quiet setting for conducting the program.
j) Carefully schedule your program so that its timing is convenient in terms of the school year, month, week, and day.

7. Evaluating the program's effectiveness. Evaluation is essential for determining whether the program has met its objectives for the participants' knowledge or skill and for improving the content and delivery of the program. Evaluation forms can be developed so that both aims can be reached. A pre/post self-evaluation of knowledge or ability on the objectives can be included, for evaluating participants' growth in these areas. In addition, participants can be asked to rate the activities, content, and structure of the program on their value and interest. Summarizing this data can provide information on whether the program's objectives have been realized and whether it is productive and satisfying to the participants.

   A good technique for the design of future inservice programs can be the inclusion of a needs assessment in the evaluation process. This may involve the additional question, "What further inservice programs would you be interested in attending?" in the evaluation form.

SAMPLE INSERVICE PROGRAMS CONDUCTED BY RESOURCE SPECIALISTS

As a general guideline for beginning the school year at a school with a new Resource Specialist Program, a resource specialist may wish to list all persons who need to be informed about the program either at the beginning of the school year or over the summer and develop activities and a timeline for establishing contacts. The following activities might be included; their sequence would vary according to situational demands.

1. Meet with the principal to discuss the programs and needed training for faculty.
2. Hold meetings to describe program to curriculum area or grade level teachers. Invite teachers to visit the program.
3. Publicize and hold meetings to describe the program to community, parents, and learners. Announce the program through letters to the community. Encourage visitations. Hold speeches at organizational meetings.
4. Hold organizational meeting with special education staff and principal.
5. Hold meeting to describe program to parents and learners in the program.
6. Contact community agencies to plan ancillary services.
7. Meet with teachers of learners in the program to interpret the individual needs of learners.
8. Meet with psychologists, social workers, counselors, vocational staff who may be involved to describe the needs of students.
9. Meet with aides and tutors to describe the individual needs of learners and to explain appropriate methods for instruction.

A brochure, handout, or newsletter can be helpful in providing initial information about the Resource Specialist Program and services to school staff. A Master Plan bulletin board in the teachers' lounge can also serve this purpose.

Adapted and reprinted from The Secondary Resource Specialist in California: Promising Practices, California Regional Resource Center, 1976.

Trainer Resource

ADULTS AND EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS

1. Adults are people who have a good deal of first-hand experience. Some have reflected on their experience and learned from it. Some have not. Others have changed their behavior without reflecting on their experience, and thus their words and actions are at odds. Most have learned by experience that their powers are limited; no longer do they expect the sand fort to hold back the sea.

   Effective workshops tap participants' experience as a major resource for learning. Effective workshops are a source of new experience for participants. Effective workshops help adults convert experience into learning.

2. Adults are people who have relatively large bodies subject to the stress of gravitational stimuli. When they were younger, many adults slept comfortably on hardwood floors. When they are older the floor is not so comfortable. Most experience discomfort when they sit too long in hard chairs. Chairs that are too short or too narrow are worse. Some adults fall asleep in chairs that are just right.

   Effective workshops have effective chairs or a good many coffee breaks.

3. Adults are people who have set habits and strong tastes. Many adults need coffee in the morning; some in the afternoon. Some hate coffee and get their caffeine from cokes or tea. Some would never touch caffeine, preferring health drinks instead. Some need to smoke; some insist on no smoking. Some like spicy language; some are offended by profanity. All find learning difficult when their habits and tastes are violated.

   Effective workshops are sensitive to adult habits and tastes and accommodate as many as possible.

4. Adults are people who have some amount of pride. Although some are dependent much of the time, all adults like to think of themselves as independent some of the time. In military training the strong emphasis on destroying independent judgment is strong proof that independence exists.

   Workshops can be used to destroy independence and create people who obey. Effective workshops develop greater abilities in self-direction and responsibility.

5. Adults are people with very tangible things to lose. Effective workshops are concerned with gain, not with proving inadequacy.

   Effective workshops aim for one hundred percent success.

6. Adults are people who have developed a reflex toward authority. Some buck it. Some bow to it. Some relate to it as a resource. And some just let it pass. When adults become their own authorities, learning power (radial energy) progresses geometrically.

   Effective workshops make appropriate use of authority.

7. Adults are people who have decisions to make and problems to solve. Many have the nostalgic idea of returning to school, of participating in pure learning. Few of them do. Instead they go to movies or watch TV. When they do go for learning, most are seeking help in solving problems or making decisions.

   Effective workshops tend to be both problem-centered and entertaining.

8. Adults are people who have a great many preoccupations outside of a particular learning situation. People are animals who have unusual difficulty in focusing. Most adults have heavy demands on their time, greater on some occasions than on others. Most have very real-life commitments. Some adults are organized, some impatient, some overwhelmed.

   Effective workshops are sensitive to their space in the adult world; they are not hoggish. Effective workshops achieve a balance between tight presentation and the time needed for learning integration.

9. Modern adults are people who are bewildered by their options.

   Effective workshops assist them in selection.

10. Adults are people who have developed group behaviors consistent with their needs. Some are hostile, some helpful. Some are aggressive, some passive. Some are defensive, some open. Most adults select from a range of ready behaviors the one that seems best calculated to meet their needs in a given situation.

    All have needs. All attempt to have those needs met by the group. Some are more successful than others. All are successful to the degree allowed by the group. All behaviors are reciprocal. Some behaviors help the group, others hinder it.

    Effective workshops concern themselves with the needs of their participants. Effective workshops attempt to meet those needs in ways that are helpful to the group. Effective workshops are a blending of many kinds of behavior.

11. Adults are people who have established emotional frameworks consisting of values, attitudes, and tendencies. All need emotional frameworks for successful functioning. Some function successfully with their framework; others do not. Some are aware of most of their framework. Most are aware of only some of it.

    Progress produces pressure for change. Some change is lifegiving. Some change leads to despair. All change is disorienting. Too much change in too short a time is destructive. The ability to change is directly proportional to the degree of safety adults feel. Rhetoric and argument do not produce change in the emotional framework. New experiences may. Values are the hardest to change. Emotional change does not necessarily produce behavior change, behavior change does not necessarily require attitude change.

    Effective workshops assist adults in making behavior changes. Effective workshops assist adults in becoming more competent. Effective workshops may assist adults in making changes in their emotional frameworks when there is a high degree of safety, mutual commitment, and choice.

12. Adults are people who have developed selective stimuli filters. People have at least five sensing systems. These systems are interrelated. Stimuli bombard these interrelated systems. An experience is composed of at least one stimulus. It is difficult to isolate a stimulus. Most experiences are composed of numerous stimuli. An environment is a space that is experienced. Environments contain countless stimuli.

    People respond to stimuli by "filtering" those which are distressing, unpleasant, etc. In short, most adults hear what they want to hear.

    Effective workshops exert some control over stimuli. Effective workshops focus on more than one sensing system. Effective workshops penetrate the filters.

13. Adults are people who respond to reinforcements. Most respond favorably to positive reinforcement most of the time. All require negative reinforcement some of the time. Some require reinforcement more often than others. Some reinforcements are insulting. Most reinforcement loses effect with senseless repetition.

    Effective workshops are built on appropriate reinforcement.

14. Adults are people who need a vacation. All good adult educators know this, and effective workshops accommodate it.

15. Adults are people who are supposed to appear in control and who therefore display restricted emotional response. Many have long lost children locked up inside them. The children may be delightful, or they may be horrid.

    Workshops are often environments in which the doors come unlocked. Effective workshops do not add to the bars, neither do they pry open the doors. Effective workshops are prepared for emotional release if it occurs.

16. Adults are people who have strong feelings about learning situations. Everybody comes from somewhere. That somewhere was either a good experience or a bad one. In it they either succeeded or failed. As a result, most people have strong tendencies toward competition, cooperation, or withdrawal. Most can develop good feelings about learning situations.

    Effective workshops are filled with success experiences.

17. Modern adults are people who are secretly afraid of falling behind and being replaced.

    Effective workshops allow them to keep pace and grow with confidence.

18. Adults are people who can skip certain basics. If they are about to build a footbridge, adults may learn only the mathematical principles required to build it. For adults, foundations for the future are often irrelevant and unnecessary; the future is now.

    Effective workshops are not bound to basics. Effective workshops get on with helping adults learn to cope with present problems. Effective workshops are little concerned with remedial education.

19. Adults are people who more than once find the foundations of their lives stripped away. The college dorm is not the same as the room back home. Leisurely afternoons are burned away by the newborn baby. Jobs are lost. Parents die. Ideals are tarnished. Divorces occur. Bodies don't perform as they once did. Children leave home. The stock market crashes. Responsibilities are taken away. Retirement becomes mandatory. Mates die and leave them alone.

    Effective workshops go beyond helping adults cope; they help them learn to live again.

20. Adults are people who can change. This is the prime tenet of faith for effective workshops.

21. Adults are people who have a past. Their memories are filled with regrets, guilts, and nostalgia for magic times. A few are blessed with accurate

memories. A few are blessed with insight.

Effective workshops are concerned with developing new competencies; the "why's" of the past are someone else's concern.

22. Adults are people who have ideas to contribute.

Reprinted from Planning, Conducting, Evaluating Workshops, by Larry Nolan Davis and Earl McCallon, Ph.D.

Trainer Resource

IMPROVING
IN-SERVICE EDUCATION:
PROPOSALS AND PROCEDURES FOR CHANGE

Edited by Louis J. Rubin
Dean, Nova University

Chapter Six

DEVELOPMENT AND MAINTENANCE OF EFFECTIVE CLASSROOM LEARNING

BY
Ronald Lippitt
Robert Fox

I. Initiation of An Inservice Training Program for Teachers

A. Several assumptions

1. Most teachers have experienced a wide variety of attempts to influence them to change their performance or to improve themselves.
2. Many of these experiences have not appeared relevant to any felt need of the teacher and have resulted in defensive attitudes.
3. Most teachers have participated in some of these activities and have been disappointed by the impracticality of the help offered.
4. Most teachers who have attempted changes as a result of participation in inservice training activities have experienced frustration or lack of support at the moment of real risk, when the changes are first being tried out. If the effort does not result in success, they either give up or accept a change that has little significance.
5. Most teachers have experienced feelings of guilt after committing themselves to "try something new" if they have then not followed through.
6. Most teachers have a number of other important roles in professional associations, as parents, as citizens, and as private persons. These other roles compete for time and attention.
7. Typically the stimulus to participate in inservice training is an unwelcome imposition of authority or an inept invitation to volunteer, with no previous involvement or warm-up opportunity to explore the potentialities of the training.
8. Education as a profession has not developed norms or procedures that support and reward participation in continuing education, as one would find in medicine, industrial engineering, or even agriculture.

B. Implications of the assumptions for approaches to teacher involvement

1. Teachers need to be involved in the identification and articulation of their own training needs whenever possible. This does not mean they "know what they need" in all respects, but the process of articulation, with resource help, is a major way of securing involvement and commitment to personal growth effort.
2. Wherever possible, teachers should have an opportunity to taste before commitment, to see or experience a sample of what the inservice learning experiences would be like before they become involved.
3. The relevance and feasibility of a particular learning program or innovation should be communicated as often as possible through accepted peers or "persons like me", so that the natural defenses of caution and distrust can be dealt with.
4. It should be clearly indicated at the very beginning that there will be follow-up support available as part of the learning activity.
5. Joint sanction and participation by key elements of the peer culture, as well as administrative leadership, should be sought.
6. The administration should involve the teachers in establishing a mutually satisfactory time, place, and principle of funding for the professional development activities.

II. Identifying Appropriate Targets for Inservice Education Programs

A. Assumptions

1. Current inservice education is focused primarily on the teacher as an individual and is seen as a continuing acquisition of concepts and skills in anticipation of future use, much in the pattern of pre-service professional training. Transfer of such learning to the problems of daily classroom life and school operation is minimal.
2. Major responsibility for inservice education has been delegated to colleges and universities. This situation has accentuated the isolation of the teacher's professional growth activities from the realities and relationships of the school setting.
3. The professional development problems of teachers are not solely matters of individual growth but must be seen in the context of a group process, of team relationships, of total staff development.
4. The development of an effective problem-solving team requires more than direct focus on the problem to be solved. Clarification of role relationships, the establishment of supportive group norms, the gaining of skill in performing a range of functions needed in effective group operation, the development of a climate of openness, trust, and mutual support-- these are learning goals which require involvement of the total team in the inservice education program.

    a. Improvement in education demands change in behavior on the part of the teachers, rather than just the learning of something new. Such changes are most likely to come through a process of problem solving in which the teacher is centrally involved.
    b. The change potential of a teacher is determined in part by what he perceives to be the expectations of his peers.
    c. The effectiveness of change activities on the part of teachers or teacher groups is enhanced if the sanctioners (administrators, students, parents, school board members) are involved as participants.
    d. Vertical teams (selected representation from central administration, teachers, pupils).
    e. Cross-sectional teams (elementary teachers, secondary teachers, parents, students, administrators, supervisors).
    f. Groups serving continuing functions within the structure (administrative councils, research and developmental committees, curriculum councils).
5. Attention should also be directed toward the personal development needs of individual staff members. Appropriate opportunities should be provided for assessment and diagnosis, planning of strategies, and pursuit of inservice growth activities appropriate to the personal professional growth needs of the individual.

6. A multiple entry strategy is indicated. The professional development program should provide simultaneous opportunities for staff members to engage independently in personal growth activities.

They should, in addition, be able to join in role clarification and development activities with peers who perform similar roles, and to join with appropriate colleagues in cross-role team development efforts.

B. Implications of these assumptions about targets for a teacher education program

1. Most inservice education activities should be carried on within a setting in which the people who work together have an opportunity to learn together. This is likely to be in the local school building, within the school system, or in a setting where the appropriate staff members can retreat for concentrated work together. It is not likely to be on the college campus.
2. Activities should be designed for and should include such groups as:

    a. Teaching teams (two or more persons responsible for the conduct of learning activities for a specific group of students; included may be teachers, paraprofessionals, student teachers or interns, volunteers).
    b. Special task force groups (teams created to work on specific problems or individuals associated to support each other in the pursuit of common interests).
    c. School building staffs (including building administrators, teachers, special teachers, and service personnel).

Contributing to the development of these skills are arrayed a wide assortment of inservice training activities, each of which may contribute in its own unique way:

1. School building faculty meetings focused on professional problems.
   The traditional school meeting is devoted to administrative matters. The agenda is set by the principal, and the group norm against raising any question that will prolong the meeting is invoked. There is need to explore the possibility of brief but focused inservice educational projects that might involve thirty to forty-five minutes of the meeting time. Principals may need to have available resource materials that will assist them in conducting such meetings and directing them toward a sequential learning experience for staff.

2. Principal-teacher consultation.
   The use of the principal by the teacher as a resource person provides a most effective opportunity for inservice education. The teacher needs to know what kinds of resources the principal might contribute and how to best work with the principal to take advantage of his resources. The principal needs to develop skill in sharing his resources effectively.

3. Teacher consultation with university-based resource persons.
   University resource people are notorious "in and outers". Effective utilization of the skills of the university-based scientist or educational specialist requires careful planning and a measure of skill. Orientation of the specialist to the kind of help needed, some opportunity for free exchange of ideas, extension of the relationship over a period of time so that as attempts to apply are undertaken or new obstacles encountered, there can be some checking back with the original resource--all are possible ingredients for the effective use of the consultant. Skill can be developed and the process improved if it is a subject for study in itself.

4. Building a temporary structure within the school system for support of a particular action-research project.
   The use of temporary structures involves organizing in order to implement a particular innovation or change project. Such systems not only contribute to the realization of the goals of the change project; they can also be utilized to further the learning of the participants.

5. Utilization of a curriculum materials center for retrieval of basic research, innovations, and tools.
   A most valuable inservice education activity occurs with staff involvement in the retrieval process under the leadership of a curriculum materials specialist. Teachers may help in various ways: searching for potentially useful materials; setting up schemes for classifying and arranging them so that they may be accessible when needed; developing evaluation or screening procedures; perfecting ways of arranging for the most useful materials to get to the staff member most in need of them at the proper time; and setting up procedures for retrieving from colleagues materials and tools they have created or adapted and making them available to others.

6. Sessions for the sharing of practices.
Opportunities to share with colleagues, through face-to-face discussion, some of the innovative practices that particular teachers have developed have proved to be stimulating and helpful. The sharing process can be perfected in a number of ways, such as defining more exactly what kinds of information are helpful for a teacher wishing to adopt the practice, presenting evidence regarding success or failure of the practice, sharing hunches about ways a practice might be further improved or adapted to other situations. Some school systems have institutionalized these sharing sessions, holding them once a month or building them into a portion of each faculty meeting.

7. Clinic sessions with teachers from other systems.
Clinic sessions (periodic meetings of teachers associated with similar change projects from different school buildings or school systems) provide opportunities for support and sharing of ideas often not existent within the normal school faculty communication system. An esprit de corps may develop among persons engaged in similar projects that results in continuing interpersonal support and motivation. It appears that most teachers are freer to share the problems and obstacles they face in carrying through their change efforts and in receiving help if the persons involved are not directly connected with their day-to-day working environment.

8. Internship with other projects on a released-time basis (curriculum projects, university-based development, or research activities).
During the past year, one school system has released a high school teacher to work with the Social Science Education Consortium in Purdue, not primarily to further the teacher's graduate degree work but as an internship program planned to feed back directly to the system. The Ann Arbor school system regularly releases an outstanding elementary school teacher for a year's internship with the University of Michigan's teacher education program. The released staff member serves on the university faculty supervising student teachers, assisting with the teaching of methods courses, and becoming involved in the variety of program-planning activities connected with the undergraduate teacher training program. On completion of the year's internship, the teacher returns to the public school classroom. Other arrangements involving less of a total time commitment could also be described, including the involvement of classroom teachers in field testing of materials in collaborative work with university based curriculum development projects.

9. Sensitivity training laboratory.
Human relations sensitivity laboratories provide the participants with opportunities to learn about themselves and about the operation of groups. Use of the "T group" or training group, in which no agenda is provided and no leadership or rules for operation are imposed, provides an exciting opportunity for participants under the direction of a trainer to focus upon the processes that occur while the group is engaged in interaction. Aspects of group behavior such as the development of norms, patterns of influence, communication systems, and internal leadership can be studied through such an experience-centered learning situation.

10. College class.
The more formal college class, possibly arranged through extension procedures to be taught within the school setting, offers opportunity for systematic review of theory and the development of concepts relative to particular aspects of the school program. Frequently some adaptation of the course can be made so that it speaks more directly to the particular needs of the school system involved.

11. Membership on an inside-outside team responsible for developing change strategies for the school or school system.
The University of Wisconsin is experimenting with the establishment of Research and Development Centers within the school buildings as an instrument for instigating and furthering the process of change. The Cooperative Project for Educational Development working in five regional centers of the country has established the inside-outside team as a central device. Through it, the project can assist school districts in examining the mechanisms for instigating and supporting change efforts within the school system. Teacher membership on such a team constitutes a unique opportunity for inservice development.

12. Summer work sessions.
A block of time for intensive work by curriculum committees or other action-research staff groups can provide opportunity for intensive work on aspects of their projects. Usually such sessions plan to involve resource people and result in products that can be shared with others.

13. Preschool workshop.
Schools reserving a block of time at the beginning of the school year for staff preschool workshops are often able to launch particular change projects at this time. Total staff involvement can be sought, special resources brought to bear in identifying and clarifying the problem, and beginning steps taken to establish a plan of action.

OPERATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

1. Because many teachers have had unsatisfactory experiences with inservice activities, it is critical that teachers be involved in the identification and articulation of their own training needs. When teachers are involved in the initiation and organization of training activities, conditions are enhanced for peer support, shared effort, and eventual utilization of new insights and skills.

2. A problem-solving approach has the greatest potential for resulting in real learning. Therefore, most inservice education activities should be carried on within the setting in which the learners normally work together. Using the inquiry method, staff members can effectively learn to identify and analyze their own problems and to participate in achieving solutions.

3. Personnel resources for inservice training reside in a variety of locations, including people within the local system, district consultants, university consultants, and consultants available through national educational programs. A systematic program must be developed in which "inside" and "outside" resources can collaborate to provide leadership and assistance to teachers.

4. If efforts to change the performance of teachers are to succeed, there must be a framework to provide continuity of action and assurance of support. Professional growth programs demand long-range planning and coordination, appropriate sequencing of activities, and evaluation and support of change efforts.

5. Many resource materials and technological aids are now available, and many useful kinds of training facilities have been designed and developed. Training programs should provide the teacher with the opportunity to learn to use current resource materials.

6. Group efforts at problem solving encourage the sharing of acquired skills and tested methods for dealing with common problems. Thus teachers themselves can contribute to a growing body of knowledge that will be of significance to the entire profession.

Adapted and reprinted from "Development and Maintenance of Effective Classroom Learning," by Ronald Lippitt and Robert Fox, in Improving Inservice Education: Proposals and Procedures for Change, Louis J. Rubin, editor.

WORKSHOP ASSUMPTION INVENTORY

1) It's impossible to keep the attention of an audience in a lecture for more than twenty minutes.

1 2 3 4 5
True False

2) It's realistic to expect teachers to change their behaviors as the result of a well designed three hour workshop.

1 2 3 4 5
True False

3) Most teachers feel that inservice is a necessary evil.

1 2 3 4 5
True False

4) Workshops are the most effective way to help schools change.

1 2 3 4 5
True False

5) Two half-day workshops are better than one full-day workshop.

1 2 3 4 5
True False

6) Workshop participants can accurately assess their own needs without "outside help".

1 2 3 4 5
True False

7) It's easy to find a good location in a school to conduct a workshop for twenty to forty teachers.

1 2 3 4 5
True False

8) A workshop that is simply a "fun experience" is its own excuse for being.

1 2 3 4 5
True False

9) The major problem conducting workshops for groups larger than twelve is:

_____

_____

Reprinted from "Development and Maintenance of Effective Classroom Learning", by Ronald Lippitt and Robert Fox.

WORKSHOP ELEMENTS

HAVE YOU CONSIDERED?

I. WARM-UP

- A. Games
- B. Introductions
- C. Activities
- D. Other

II. INPUT

- A. Lecture
- B. Articles
- C. Instruments
- D. Demonstration
- E. Other

III. PRACTICE

- A. Worksheets
- B. Simulations
- C. Problem-solving groups
- D. Case studies
- E. Practicum
- F. Other

IV. DISCUSSION

- A. of Input
- B. of Practice
- C. of Personal experience
- D. Other

V. APPLICATION/PLANNING

- A. Next steps
- B. How to follow-up
- C. Personal resolve
- D. Planning to attack problems
- E. Identification of problems to address in workshop or follow-up
- F. Set timelines for implementation
- G. Other

VI. EVALUATION

- A. Feedback sheet
- B. Discussion
- C. Other

Inservice Planning Sheet

Chairperson _____ Title of Session _____

Location _____ Anticipated Number of Particlpants _____

Date _____ Time _____

	TASK	NA	PERSON RESPONSIBLE
	1. Facilities		1.
	a. appropriate - physical set-up		a.
	b. ample space & arrangement		b.
	c. equipment		c.
	1. extension cord		1.
	2. movie projector		2.
	3. slide		3.
	4. filmstrip projector		4.
	5. video tape		5.
	6. screen		6.
	7. other		7.
	2. Sign-in Sheets		2.
	3. Name tags		3.
	4. Refreshments - Menu		4.
	5. Display		5.
	6. Handouts - agenda, program		6.
	a. Print Shop		a.
	b. on-hand		b.
	7. Maps, directions and information sent to appropriate individuals.		7.
	8. Evaluation forms		8.
	9. Consultant contracts *(accomodations)*		9.
	10. Invitations Board Members *(when appropriate)*		10.
	11. Budget *(i.e., category)* est. costs		11.
	12. Assemble packets		12.
	13. Registration		13.
	14. Entertainment		14.
	15. Host & Hostesses		15.
	16. Inservice Date Report/Summary		16.
	17. Costumes/Props		17.
	18. Interpreters		18.
	19. Other		19.

CONSULTATION

CONSULTATION & EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

CONTENT	ACTIVITY	MEDIA	HANDOUTS
1. Present and discuss competencies Discuss role types - personality types for this role		OH - Competencies-Consultation OH - from SERN 3 Resource Specialist Manual	
2. Discuss Kiersey Temperament Sorter Managerial Styles	Administer Kiersey Temperament Styles survey from SERN 3 Resource Specialist Manual. Participants take and score individually		Kiersey Temperament Scoring Sheets
		3. Present do's and don'ts in communication/ consultation using OH 17 through 24.	

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THE CONSULTING FUNCTION

80070.8 THE CANDIDATE FOR THE RESOURCE SPECIALIST CERTIFICATE SHALL DEMONSTRATE THE FOLLOWING SKILLS, KNOWLEDGE AND PERFORMANCE COMPETENCIES.

(1) PROVIDE CONSULTANT SERVICES TO REGULAR CLASSROOM TEACHERS IN THE IDENTIFICATION AND ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING AND BEHAVIORAL PATTERNS IN PUPILS.

(2) CONSULTATION AND ASSISTANCE IN THE UTILIZATION OF EVALUATION DATA FOR THE MODIFICATION OF INSTRUCTION AND CURRICULUM.

(3) PROVIDE CONSULTATION SERVICES IN THE APPLICATION OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES.

(4) PROVIDE CONSULTANT SERVICES AS TO RESOURCES APPROPRIATE TO INDIVIDUALS WITH EXCEPTIONAL NEEDS TO REGULAR STAFF MEMBERS, PARENTS AND GUARDIANS.

(5) CONSULT IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF PRE-VOCATIONAL AND/OR VOCATIONAL PLANS FOR INDIVIDUALS WITH EXCEPTIONAL NEEDS.

(6) CONSULT WITH REGULAR CLASSROOM TEACHERS AND STUDENTS AS TO THEIR ACCEPTANCE OF STUDENTS WITH EXCEPTIONAL NEEDS.

NOTE: AUTHORITY CITED: SECTION 44225, EDUCATION CODE.
REFERENCE: SECTION 56362 AND 56362.5, EDUCATION CODE.

CONSULTATIVE SKILLS

The following are behaviors and skills which are important for consultants working in educational settings. The list is not all inclusive - you may add to it, but it does represent a range of traits which help define the consultant as professional.

I. COMMUNICATION SKILLS

1. Has an easy manner
2. Empathizes with client
3. Is perceived as non-threatening
4. Uses a common vocabulary
5. Establishes a proper relationship with people in authority positions (e.g., respectful but not intimidated)
6. Has good eye contact
7. Knows the signals of body language and uses them
8. Can/does paraphrase
9. Is comfortable giving and receiving feedback
10. Can move into the client's frame of reference
11. Deals with frustration constructively
12. Asks good questions
13. Offers advice when appropriate
14. Withholds advice when appropriate
15. Can identify communication patterns in an organizational setting
16. Can describe feelings accurately/comfortably
17. Avoids ambiguities
18. _____
19. _____
20. _____

II. *PROBLEM-SOLVING SKILLS*

1. Generates alternatives
2. Can prepare a problem statement
3. Moves toward closure
4. Outlines immediate next steps
5. Outlines long-term plans
6. Sets expectations
7. Gets client agreement on each step in the process
8. Describes the purpose of the contact, e.g.,
   -- expected outcomes
   -- roles of each party
9. Helps client describe/state problems
10. Knows creative idea-generating techniques
11. Can see both sides in a situation
12. _____
13. _____

III. *TRAINING SKILLS*

1. Speaks well before large groups (more than 30)
2. Knows a variety of "warm-up" activities
3. Can create effective post-training evaluation forms
4. Can energize an audience
5. Can create activities out of concepts
6. Is perceived as both a helper and an expert
7. Establishes clear expectations about training events
8. Creates follow-up activities to extend the impact of training

9. Asks questions that set direction for discussions and solicit a variety of responses

10. Knows when to speak and when to listen

11. _____

12. _____

13. _____

14. _____

CONSULTATION SKILLS FOR THE SPECIAL EDUCATOR

How To Be in the Show Without Taking Center Stage

Oftentimes during the action-taking phase of a consulting relationship, the consultant feels out of place, or "back stage" with little or nothing to do. The client is now beginning to put into effect the carefully developed plans, experimenting with new strategies, methods or materials. But what does the consultant do during this phase?

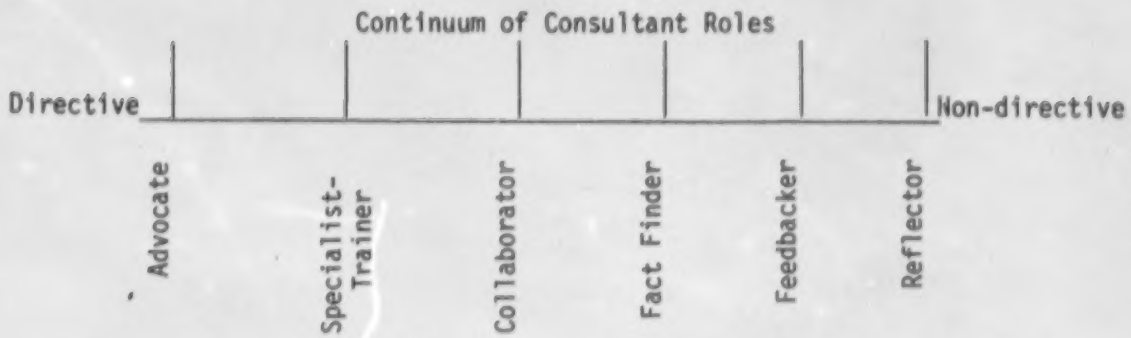
Unfortunately, too often consultants feel their usefulness is over at this point and leave the client to his own devices. Yet leaving the client alone during this phase is like asking actors to put on a show with no help backstage. The actors' success is dependent on the support they receive from people "behind the scenes". For example, there's the stage manager who makes sure props and scenery are ready, the director who gives the actors training, and the friends and fans who cheer the actors on.

There are many ways consultants can be "behind the scene" offering support to their clients during the action-taking phase. One way is to offer workshops to help the client develop the skills he or she needs to implement the plan of action. For example, if the special education consultant and classroom teacher have planned to increase a child's attending behavior through a reinforcement system, the consultant might offer a training workshop on behavior modification. Locating necessary materials and resources for the client is another way to help. Frequently, the client may also need assistance in learning how to best use these resources. A classroom teacher may need special materials for working with a perceptually-impaired child in her class. The consultant could help by locating these materials and demonstrating their use.

Trying out something new oftentimes generates anxiety, particularly if results are not immediate or are difficult to measure. A classroom teacher who is confronted with a handicapped child in her class for the first time may feel anxious about providing special materials for that child because she doesn't want the child to feel "different". If the child then does not make rapid progress with these materials, the teacher may quickly discontinue them. An important role for the consultant in a situation such as this would be to provide the teacher with supportive, guiding feedback to relieve his/her anxiety and to point out small successes.

Not all plans work, and problems will, without doubt, arise during the action-taking phase. Therefore, the consultant needs to remain readily available to the client. Plans and strategies need frequent evaluation during this phase. If they are not working, the client and consultant should replan. This process of evaluation, replanning and implementation should be an ongoing part of the action-taking phase in order to insure the success of the consultation.

Supplemental Materials for Phase II - Contracting



Advocate role: The consultant tries to influence the client to accept particular goals, values or methodologies.

Example: The special education consultant tries to convince teachers to use a token reinforcement system to change children's behavior.

Specialist/Trainer: The consultant shares his/her special training or knowledge with the client through providing a particular service. This may include conducting training for the client.

Example: The special education consultant conducts a workshop for regular education teachers on task analysis.

Collaborator: The consultant complements and collaborates with the client during the problem-solving phase. The consultant helps the client identify the "real" problem, helps evaluate alternative solutions, assists in the planning of a course of action and sometimes participates in making the decision.

Example: The special education consultant and regular education teacher mutually brainstorm and come up with several strategies for

working with a learning-disabled child. They discuss them and agree on trying two of the alternatives.

Fact Finder: The consultant functions as a researcher to provide a broad base of information on which the client can base his/her decisions.

Example: The special education consultant conducts several diagnostic tests to specify a child's needs.

Feedbacker: The consultant helps the client "tune in" to how things are done rather than focus on what is done. The consultant offers "feedback" to the client.

Example: The consultant might describe to the teacher how a particular child responds during transition times in the classroom.

Reflector: The consultant stimulates the client to make decisions by asking reflective questions that clarify, modify or change the way in which the client perceives a situation.

Example: Through asking questions, the consultant helps the classroom teacher understand the need for changing her classroom arrangement to help control over-active behavior.

Excerpted from James D. Anderson, Council for Exceptional Children Institute Series.

Although several definitions for consultation have been presented in the literature (Caplan, 1959; Lippett, 1959), the most current and perhaps most relevant one for the resource specialist is presented by Dinkmeyer (1968, p. 187):

> Consulting is the procedure through which teachers, parents, principals and other adults significant in the life of the child communicate. Consultation involves sharing information and ideas, coordinating, comparing observations, providing a sounding board, and developing tentative hypotheses for action.

This definition emphasizes the collaborative relationship between the "consultant" and the "consultee". The consultee is the person requesting the consultant's assistance in the solution of a current work problem, usually dealing with a "client" of the consultee's services. For example, a teacher (consultee) may ask the resource specialist (consultant) for assistance with a problem presented by a learner (client) in her classroom. The relationship which develops during the consultation process is one of "collaboration", in which both the resource specialist and the teacher share the responsibility for developing alternatives to the situation.

Value and role of resource specialist as a consultant.

The consultant's primary role in the school is that of helping person. Being a professional helper implies responsibility for a high level of self-awareness about one's own values and needs as they may influence the helping relationship (Benne, 1959). A resource specialist must be committed to collaborative ways of working, use of valid knowledge and information as a basis for change, and to the reduction of power differentials among people as a distorting influence on change (Kelman, 1965). The resource specialist must be aware of her own values and theoretical biases, and alert to the possibility that she may be imposing these on the teacher. A resource specialist may wish to ask herself, "What are my motives, as a consultant, for becoming involved in the relationship? What are the bases of my desire to promote change? Am I creating a situation in which the teacher can make choices according to his own values, or am I structuring the situation so that my values dominate?" Labeling our own values to ourselves and teachers and inviting open discussion, can mitigate the tendency to manipulate, which is inherent in most positions of influence. The consultation process should result in increasing the teacher's range of choices and her ability to choose, rather than communicating the resource specialist's own values and beliefs concerning human behavior and models for change.

Another essential prerequisite is an awareness of the goals and limitations of one's position as a resource and consultant within the school. The role of resource specialist varies depending on local conditions, but some general overall guidelines have been developed from the philosophy of the program. Persons from the Santa Barbara and Stanislaus County Responsible Local Agencies (RLAs) implementing the California Master Plan for Special Education have stated that the primary role of the resource specialist is to facilitate the mainstreaming of individuals with exceptional needs into the regular education program. Specific consultations with parents, administrators, teachers and support personnel would thus revolve around providing for the needs of particular learners, and preparing regular education staff

so that the learner may function successfully in the regular classroom. The consultation would thus be designed to help teachers deal more effectively with "difficult" or "different" children in the schools rather than to "get them out of the classroom". The resource specialist is not someone who will take the learner's problems off the teacher's hands, but an expert resource who will assist the teacher in helping the learner. The objective of the resource specialist job role is to serve increased numbers of learners by enabling the regular classroom teacher to share a greater responsibility for handicapped children.

This orientation may present problems to the resource specialist when consulting with a teacher who does not share these values. The teacher who is made responsible for the atypical learner's education may in fact not experience this responsibility. She may feel that this responsibility is limited in terms of time, or that it is defined in terms of the trade-offs and rewards she can obtain in return for taking on this task. It is important that the resource specialist does not campaign actively for her own goals with missionary or reforming zeal. Such behavior tends to arouse resistance among those teachers with different value systems. Open discussion of her role and value orientation can assist in developing a collaborative relationship.

The resource specialist role is also subject to the "multiple agency phenomenon" described by Folik and Sigel. Roles and expectations may often overlap and conflict with each other, and the resource specialist must be aware in each situation whose interests may be represented. She must be able to maintain a flexible relationship with each of the parties involved in the consultation process so that the problem can be resolved. In other words, she must remain free from overidentification with any of the major roles within the system and be available to serve as an agent of the teacher, parent, student or administrator as the situation demands. The ability to act as an impartial and mutually trusted intermediary can be critical to the role. For effective consultation to occur, each consultee must be confident that the consultant can deal with content or material in a clear and impartial fashion, unencumbered by prejudice or other interests. If a resource specialist is closely identified with the school's administration, she will have difficulty gaining the confidence and trust of teachers, who may see her as an evaluator of their competencies. If she is closely identified with the teachers, she may have difficulty obtaining the confidence of those parents who have had previous negative experiences with the school.

Even though a resource specialist may have delineated her own role to herself by the time she comes to a school, she may need to deal with the diverse role expectations on the teacher's part. Many teachers may be resistant towards the role of the resource specialist as a consultant. It is obviously a change in function from the traditional special education teacher. The school staff may not be willing to accept this change initially. In addition, various school professionals may have fears about what the resource specialist may do to them or their program. They may fear that the resource specialist will reveal their inadequacies or do a more effective job than they are doing, or take over some of their role. These various fears often impede the establishment of collaborative relationships for consultation.

In order to clarify her role expectations, the resource specialist may wish to develop an outline which clearly defines her areas of expertise in

relation to personal needs and the needs of the school. This outline can then be used with administrators, support staff, teachers and parents as a basis for further negotiation and clarification of the school and consultant's goals and services. She may wish to meet with these persons in order to state explicitly what kind of help she can offer and for what kind of learners. Some real-life examples about the types of problems with which she can assist may prove helpful The resource specialist must also explain what kind of help she cannot offer. This may clear up the misconceptions as to proper assistance, and ways of giving and receiving it, which are inevitably brought by consultees to the helping situation because of previous experiences. Mutual accommodation of the initial expectations of the consultee and the consultant is necessary for the establishment of an effective relationship. During the meeting, the resource specialist might also delineate differences between her work and the work of other school professionals in order to further clarify expectations.

In addition, the resource specialist should expect resistance and fears on the part of the staff, and plan for them. By making herself visible and available in informal ways she can encourage contact. The problems can be worked out, eventually, without infringing on others' duties and enabling better functioning. This occurs when a resource specialist performs a service after someone had finally asked for help. This is when her expertise about the problem the learner poses, or on techniques for assistance, can be crucial. Other teachers, who have been standing by waiting to see if consultation is truly a safe and helpful situation, will "get the idea" and follow-up with their own requests for help from the resource specialist.

Since people tend to be confused about a consultant's role, the resource specialist will most likely have to continue defining this function. Consistency of action can help in this process of role definition, as most persons can understand it better if the consultant is consistent in articulating the role (Caplan, 1964).

In addition to defining her role, the resource specialist must attain the confidence of school staffs. She must prove herself a viable and responsible member, who will make commitments and extend herself. This may mean serving on yard duty or campus patrol, taking on an extracurricular group, engaging in some regular classroom instruction, etc. She must assume some responsibility for actual behavioral management and grapple with the problems the staff regularly faces. In this manner, she can become a valued "inside" member of the school.

Article excerpted from Consultation Skills for the Special Educator, by Anderson, Maloney and Tewey in consultation with James D. Anderson, Council for Exceptional Children Institute Series.

THE SPECIAL EDUCATOR AS CONSULTANT: SOME STRATEGIES

I've got this kid who...How many times have you heard sentences beginning like that? A thousand? Usually, it's in the hall or the teachers' lounge. You're trying to get yourself prepared, or composed, or relaxed, and one of the regular classroom teachers in your school comes over and begins with, "I've got this kid who..." Sometimes it seems like an imposition on your time, but you try to give some help anyway. All this is nothing new. What is new is that you, the special educator, are going to be asked to do more and more of this type of thing--more and more consultation with regular teachers.

WHY ME?

Good question. After all, there you were just a few years ago: responsible for a class of 15 kids in the old mimeograph room at the end of the hall. Nobody bothered you. Nobody cared. Maybe you were able to "mainstream" your kids into lunch or physical education. Maybe not.

Now, all of a sudden, you are a resource room teacher (whatever that means), and your kids are really mainstreamed--into reading, math, spelling, or science. New laws have been written adding constraints and responsibilities into your job. One of the new responsibilities is to work with those regular classroom teachers whom you hardly know outside of the teachers' lounge. Not only that, but you are expected to get them to do the right thing by kids with whom they would rather not have to deal at all. So asking, "Why me?" is understandable.

There are three good reasons for you, the special educator, to act as consultant to regular teachers on learning/behavior problems. First, new laws (e.g., Public Law 94-142) have mandated placement of "handicapped" children in the "least restrictive environment," which could, and often does, mean the regular classroom. And, while teachers are technically responsible for the mainstreamed student, they are supposed to get some kind of help. Direct intervention (e.g., tutoring) is a time consuming and, therefore, expensive process. Furthermore, the effectiveness of this kind of service has been seriously questioned (Dunn, 1968; Gallagher, 1972; Lilly, 1970). Consultation, an indirect service, has a "ripple effect". That is, by helping just one teacher do a better job, you are improving the programs of all the children in the classroom, something you would find difficult to do directly. So, from a cost benefit standpoint, more and more consultation seems to be in order.

A second reason for your doing consultation is that about one-third of all school age children are experiencing some kind of difficulty in school (Swift & Spivack, 1975). That means in an elementary school of 500, 150 to 200 kids need more than they are currently getting from their school experience. Obviously, you cannot give them all they need directly. What you can do is help teachers in your school deal more effectively with the problems in their classes--which is what consultation is all about. By providing this kind of indirect service, you are helping not only the individuals about whom the teacher is immediately concerned, but all the other children in the class.

And, while the effects of consultation may not be as measurable as, say, tutoring a dozen kids in reading, the "ripple effect" makes it a more effective proposition in the long run.

A third argument for consultation is that your job as a resource teacher puts you in a unique position in the school--one that is particularly well suited to working with other teachers. Writers have pointed to several factors that make consultation work. For instance, consultation is more effective when it is a collaborative undertaking, rather than a relationship between an "expert" and an "nonexpert" (Dinkmeyer & Carlson, 1973). Also, consultation works better when it is a continuing, long-term relationship, rather than once a month visit from a school psychologist or supervisor (Mode & Muhich, 1972). You probably have these things working for you already; that is, you are seen as an equal, as a permanent member of the faculty. Here are a few tips on harnessing your position for consultation in the school.

BEING AN EXPERT IS NOT SO SMART

A lot of special educators are frustrated doctors. We like to be able to give advice, prescribe cures. It makes us feel good to be "experts," to know The Answer. We tend to use impressive terms like hyperkinesis, dyspraxia, and strephasymbolia not for what they communicate about the student, but for what they communicate about ourselves: that we are, in fact, a special breed of teachers.

We often feel that we are the only ones who really understand the nature and needs of the exceptional child (after all we took a course with just that title). We see the regular teacher as unacceptable for "our" special kids. While these feelings are all too justified, they are rarely very productive. By thinking of yourself as the only hope for the special child you are building a barrier between your program and the rest of the school. Furthermore, by helping regular teachers abdicate their responsibility, you are keeping them from growing, from expanding their capabilities in needed directions.

Remember this: they are not your kids. They are the responsibility of their teacher. So, if Mrs. Smith has Johnny for reading, Johnny is her responsibility, whether he is retarded, learning-disabled, or speech-impaired. Your responsibility is to help Mrs. Smith do her job better, by offering her suggestions or assistance. Don't let Mrs. Smith make you feel that she is doing you a favor by "taking one of your kids".

You are neither the expert who is going to tell Mrs. Smith what to do, nor her aide, helping her by doing her job for her. You need to foster a cooperative relationship with the regular teacher, where you can function as two equals, each bringing your unique skills and perspective to the situation.

Curb your natural tendency to tell Mrs. Smith how she should teach Johnny. Nobody likes unsolicited advice. Wait for Mrs. Smith to feel a need and to ask for help. Only then will she appreciate and benefit from it. Of course you can help her feel a need for help by being in her room a lot, asking about the situation, or suggesting to the principal that something needs to be done about Johnny. But wait to be asked for your advice.

IT'S WHAT YOU DON'T SAY THAT COUNTS

Let's assume that you have developed a nice cooperative relationship with Mrs. Smith, and that she does ask you what to do with Johnny. It's your move. What do you do? You tell her what to do with Johnny, right? Wrong! Snap answers are never appropriate. If you're wrong, you've embarrassed yourself. If you're right, you've embarrassed Mrs. Smith, who may have been struggling with the problem for months.

The first rule for consultants is to listen. It seems like a simple notion, but it usually marks the difference between an effective and an ineffective helper. Being a good listener is not just polite, it's smart. By giving Mrs. Smith a chance to talk freely about the problem, you are doing two positive things: helping her relieve her anxiety about the situation, thereby making her more receptive to your ideas, and gathering valuable information--her view of the problem for months. What's more, even if you are right, it's unlikely that Mrs. Smith will take your ideas seriously unless she feels that you have taken the time to gather information and give thoughtful consideration to the problem.

So practice listening--not the passive, polite, waiting for your turn kind--but active, concerned, therapeutic listening.

IF EVERYBODY LIKES WHAT YOU'RE DOING, YOU'RE PROBABLY DOING IT WRONG

Change hurts. It's a more or less painful experience for everyone involved. If you, as a consultant, are doing anything worthwhile, you are causing change--in the way Mrs. Smith teaches reading, in her attitude toward "kids like Johnny", in the atmosphere in her classroom, or in her relationship to her class.

So, expect a certain amount of discomfort. Expect teachers to get upset with you from time to time, to tell you to mind your own business, to try to avoid you. Don't consider it an indication of failure. Just the opposite! If you have established the right kind of relationship with her, Mrs. Smith's occasional negative behavior is probably a sign of growth, which always involves anxiety and uncertainty.

Systems resist change. Like giant oysters they try to smooth down or expel irritants. Successful consultant/change agents know just how irritating to be--enough to stimulate change, but not enough to be kicked out of school. School faculties are very good at smoothing out your rough edges. They want you to go along, not to rock the boat. "After all," they say, "we're a team. We all have to pitch in." This often means "helping" teachers to abdicate their responsibility to kids who represent problems to them.

Be on alert for attempts to get you to do things for the convenience of the system, rather than for the benefit of the children. Don't let Mrs. Smith tell you that she will not teach Johnny because she doesn't have time. (You'll hear this one at least twice a day!) Help her to find time, to realize that it is her responsibility to teach Johnny unless she has a contract that allows her to teach only the kids she wants to, and to see that by expanding her skills now, she will do a better job with her whole class and with other "problem learners" that she might have in coming years.

A TEACHER'S CLASSROOM IS HER CASTLE

One of the surest ways to get the average teacher uptight is to invade her sanctuary--her classroom. Whatever your reason for being there, your presence invites her anxiety or even hostility. The problem is that you, as a consultant, need to see how her class works, how she manages her time, how the kids respond to her instructions, many things that can only be reliably observed in person. So how do you get the information you need without causing (or experiencing) undue discomfort?

Keep in mind four things regarding classroom observation. First, Mrs. Smith's reaction to your presence is natural. Everybody gets anxious when someone is looking over his shoulder. This is especially true in schools, where, typically, classroom visitors are there to evaluate the teacher. Second, be as unobtrusive as possible. Don't get too involved with helping or talking to the kids. Take a seat and disappear as much as possible. Third, make a point to talk to the teacher after your visit, and stress your positive reactions to her teaching. Finally, make visits often enough to acclimate Mrs. Smith and the kids to your presence. The more you are around, the less threatening you'll be.

EVERYTHING BROKEN DOESN"T HAVE TO BE FIXED

A few years ago I took my car to the shop for routine maintenance. About noon the mechanic called me at work to tell me that the left turn signal was broken and it would cost ten dollars to have it fixed. I thanked him for calling and explained that, while the turn signal did not blink on and off automatically, it did blink each time I depressed the lever. So, as long as I was willing to move the lever up and down (and I was) the blinking effect was normal. Thus, I concluded, there was no need to fix the turn signal. "But," came his unruffled reply, "it's broken." I went on patiently, "I don't mind operating the lever manually, so there is no problem. And since there's no problem, there is nothing to be fixed." "But," he repeated, "it's broken."

It's easy for us to fall into a "fix it" mentality. Whenever we diagnose a "hyper-something," or an "a-something," or (heaven forbid!) a "dys-something," we feel duty bound to treat it, to bring it up to manufacturer's specifications. Often, in our blind pursuit of normalcy, we overlook the fact that no problem exists, except in our own heads. Johnny reads with his book turned sideways, or kneels instead of sitting on his chair, or wears his jacket in class. Do we "fix" him or let him be? Before we can answer that question realistically we must ask, "Is it a problem for Johnny--or for us?" Does it hamper Johnny's learning, or do we see it as a problem because of our own preoccupation with things being normal, with Johnny acting like everyone else?

In dealing with teachers who bring you problems, use caution. Make sure that a problem, not just a difference, exists. Don't waste your energy, the teacher's time, and the child's self-concept fixing something that doesn't need to be fixed.

Having said that, let me add: If a teacher sees a problem, you can bet that a problem exists. A contradiction? Nothing of the sort. If Mrs. Smith

sees Johnny as a problem, then whether or not Johnny turns out to be a problem, something is probably wrong with the relationship between him and Mrs. Smith, or with Mrs. Smith herself, or with the school's expectations of Johnny. Look at some of these areas for the problem.

THREE FINAL SUGGESTIONS

First take yourself seriously. Consultation is a real job. It can provide your school with an invaluable service if it is undertaken conscientiously. Second, look and listen. Input comes before output. Watch what's going on in your school. Listen to the concerns of the teachers. Third, learn. There is a lot to know, both about the nature of learning and behavior problems, and about the process of consultation. Following is a list of books to provide you with some additional reading.

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INSERVICE BRIEF

ASSIGNMENT

You have been asked, as a consultant, to help clarify the responsibilities of junior high school special education and regular education (or classroom) teachers toward mainstreamed learning-disabilities students. The meeting is at the building level and is scheduled to be held after school for approximately one hour.

IDEA

Responsibility Exchange. At the beginning of the meeting, ask the group to be thinking of the responsibilities of both special education and regular teachers toward mainstreamed learning-disabled students in their building. About ten minutes before the end of the session, ask the regular teachers to list on a separate sheet of paper three to five of the responsibilities of the special education teacher(s). Ask the special education teacher(s) to list three to five responsibilities of the regular teachers. Tell the group that they have three minutes to complete the activity and that they must do it without consulting with their colleagues. Ask them not to sign their names. At the end of three minutes ask the special education teacher(s) to read the list to the others. Allow for a short discussion period. Then have the regular education teachers give their lists to the facilitator. In turn, the facilitator gives the lists to the special education teacher(s) to go over and to discuss with the regular classroom teachers at a later date. Experience with this activity has proved to be very helpful in clarifying roles, pinpointing misperceptions, and improving communication.

Reprinted from In-Service Consultor, Vol, 2, No. 5, p. 7, July-August 1976.

TIME MANAGEMENT

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LIST
I.E.P.
I.E.P.

TIME MANAGEMENT

TIME	CONTENT	ACTIVITY	MEDIA	HANDOUTS
10 min	Importance of time management to Resource Specialists. - characteristics of effective executives		OH # 25	"Effective Use of Time (pg 76)
30 min	Introduce film.		"The Time of Your Life" Cally Curtis Co. 1111 N. Las Palmas Hollywood, CA 90038 (213) 467-1101	
	Introduce activity.	Individually: - write down personal and professional goals for the next year. - establish priorities using A,B,C method. - select "A" goals and task analyze; list "A" goals on weekly plan form. - fill out weekly calendar assuming that this is the first week of the next school year, making sure that "A" goals are addressed.		
15 min	Discuss: - practical start-up, scheduling and organization tips			Sample forms (pg 77-79)

Trainer's Notes

TIME MANAGEMENT

INTRODUCTION

"Take Your Time"

> It is not enough merely to save time or to get more done in less time. An approach to time management that has as its primary thrust the imperative, Hurry up!, is quite pointless. Time management must contribute to getting more of the things done that promote the processes of life, human dignity and freedom. For these things we must take our time.
>
> Bill Daniels, Take Your Time, 1977.

Peter Drucker has shown that effective executives have a number of characteristics in common. According to his studies, effective executives:

. . . Know where their time goes.

. . . Focus on outward contributions. They gear their efforts to results rather than to work.

. . . Build on strengths - their own strengths, the strengths of their superiors, colleagues, and subordinates; and on the strengths in the situation, that is, on what they can do. They do not build on weakness. They do not start out with the things they cannot do.

. . . Concentrate on a few major areas where superior performance will produce outstanding results.

. . . Make effective decisions. Effective decisions are based on "the right steps in the right sequence..."; they account for "dissenting opinions rather than on consensus of the facts"; and are based on the "right strategy rather than razzle-dazzle tactics".

OBJECTIVES

1. To recognize the need for effective time management.
2. To identify how participants spend their time.
3. To prioritize goals and organize time accordingly.

Basic Concepts of Time Management

1. Be proactive, not reactive.
2. Plan and control your time.
   Ineffective managers are controlled by events and constituents.
3. Identify your Quality Time.
   Quality Time = sufficiently large blocks programmed during your most creative period of the day.

4. Schedule uninterrupted one to two hour time blocks for planning. Concentrated time blocks are more effective than short time spaces scheduled separately.

5. Schedule tasks requiring intensive thought into your most creative work hours.

6. Don't overwork yourself!
Studies show there is little correlation between effective management and the amount of time spent on the job. There is, however, a high correlation between effective management and the amount of quality time spent on high priority objectives.

Know How You Spend Your Time

Effective management involves knowledge of how you utilize your time. Managers who have kept daily records of their time are usually shocked at the outcome. Results of surveys regarding this information show:

1. Excess time is spent in crisis situations.

2. More time is spent on trivia than is necessary.

3. Frequent interruptions destroy planning incentive and momentum.

4. High priority objectives receive less time than low priority objectives.

5. Quality time is not spent on items requiring creativity and productivity.

Prioritize Your Goals and Organize Your Time Accordingly

Effective management depends upon establishing clear and realistic goals and deciding what needs to be done right now to move closer to the achievement of those goals. Every manager has goals covering diverse areas - personal, professional, family, social, recreational. Mismanagement of time or over-indulgence in one area of interest may lead to havoc in the neglected areas.

In his book, Take Your Time, Bill Daniels offers these suggestions:

A simple but very effective system of prioritization is to divide all of your possible activities into three parts: A's, B's, and C's.

A's: About 5% of your possible activities rate first priority ranking. These are the things that lead directly to the accomplishment of goals. On any particular day, it is rare for a person to have more than three A type activities - you should never be in doubt about what these are, and every effort should be made to focus attention and energy upon making progress on them.

B's: About 15% of your possible activities fall into this category. These are things that are important and are related to your goals but which do not have to be done immediately or which are not actually required to reach a minimal level of goal achievement. As you become successful

in managing time for accomplishment of A's, it becomes possible to perform more of the B's. As you are able to perform more B's your reputation for excellence grows - you become known for "doing it right".

C's: 80% of all possible activities fall into this category. These activities do not relate effectively to the accomplishment of goals. They are usually easy little tasks that can be performed quickly and in large volume. You are tempted to do them in order to have a sense of "getting things done". In fact, they are a waste of time and effort. They rob you of time for A's and B's.

In order to create and maintain balance, you must:

1. Set objectives in every area of life.

2. Determine which objectives are high priority.

3. Allocate time to those of highest priority.

4. Monitor your schedule to insure that high priority objectives continue to receive high amount and high quality time allocations.

Excerpted from Take Your Time, by Bill Daniels, New York, 1977, and The Effective Executive, by Peter F. Drucker, New York, 1966.

DEVELOP AND UTILIZE A DAILY CALENDAR

Suggestion: Use a 3-ring binder. Identify sections and include:

-Daily planning pages
-Directory of frequently called people
-Note pages

Suggestion: Transfer district and school dates onto your daily planning pages.

Suggestion: Daily planning pages can be used to record:

-Appointments/ scheduled events
-Priority tasks to be accomplished each day
-IEP Process dates
-Teaching, Consultation, and Parent responsibilities and contacts

Suggestion: Note pages can be used when you are in meetings - such as IEP, faculty, department meetings.

Suggestion: As time goes by, you may want to add dividers of recurring responsibilities and activities, such as:

-Orientation programs
-Testing schedules
-Budget deadlines

Suggestion: Follow priorities for the day in numerical order; the ones you don't finish become number ones tomorrow.

Suggestion: Plan your day - follow your plan.

REDUCE PAPERWORK

Suggestion: Try not to handle a peice of paper more than once. Write on it, file, or send it on; however, don't put it down to pick it up or shuffle through later.

Suggestion: Prioritize with the "two touch system"
-First touch: prioritize mail, memos, etc. into three boxes:
Box "A" = 1st priority
Box "B" = 2nd priority
Box "C" = circular file

-Second touch: throw away Box "C". Respond to Box "A" and Box "B" according to the priorities.

Suggestion: Purge files at least annually: It is estimated that you can throw away at least 80% of what you file - it will never be used again!

DEVELOP YOUR AIDE

The Special Education teacher and aide are a team. Each is essential to effective management, but teamness only developes through care and nurturing.

Suggestion: -Establish procedures, forms, etc., to help him/her.
-Provide him/her with inservice training.
-Make suggestions and recommendations.
-Get help from the district office, visitations, etc.

Suggestion: Take five minutes each morning to discuss priorities for the day, changes in schedules, answer questions, etc.

Suggestion: Encourage him/her to show initiative, find answers and not always come to you.

Suggestion: Keep your aide informed.

Suggestion: Build on your aide's strengths.

Suggestion: Praise your aide.

Suggestion: Back up your aide - particularly when he/she has made decisions to save you time or to increase your efficiency.

Each day is rich in potentialities. We can either use the passing hours to implement our plans, realize our dreams, strengthen our foundations, or we may treat these hours with unthinking indifference, the moments slipping through our fingers like fine sand on the shore.

- Callisthenes

EFFECTIVE USE OF TIME

SET GOALS--What are my long-term goals? What are my goals for the next six months? Include goals in all areas of life: personal, professional, family, social, community, etc.

ESTABLISH PRIORITIES--Which of my goals are most important? Use "A" to designate items of high value, "B" to denote items of moderate value, and "C" to label items of low value.

ANALYZE PRESENT TIME USE--Am I using my time to reach my high priority goals?

ELIMINATE TIME WASTERS--Spend time on priority tasks that lead to priority goals.

RECOGNIZE THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN "Urgent" and "Important".

DON'T PROCRASTINATE--Instead, break large tasks into smaller manageable tasks. Begin the smaller task immediately.

MAKE A DAILY TO-DO LIST--Make one list, update it daily, and prioritize every item.

BEGIN WITH HIGH PRIORITY TASKS--This is the 80/20 rule: 80% of the benefit comes from completing 20% of the tasks, that, is the high priority tasks. "C" tasks may be postponed.

ASK YOURSELF: IS THIS THE BEST USE OF MY TIME RIGHT NOW?

RESOURCE SPECIALIST DAILY PLANNER

IEPT/Annual Review Meetings

Name Date

Month_____

Day_____

Date_____

APPOINTMENTS/SCHEDULED EVENTS:

8:00
8:30
9:00
9:30
10:00
10:30
11:00
11:30
12:00
12:30
1:00
1:30
2:00
2:30
3:00
3:30
4:00
4:30

PRIORITY | TO BE DONE TODAY

Special Needs:

STUDENT	ACTION	FOLLOW UP

INSTRUCTIONAL AIDE:

Consultation:

TEACHER	ACTION	FOLLOW UP

Parent Contacts:

PARENT	ACTION	FOLLOW UP

A FIVE-YEAR PLAN

PRIORITY	ROLES	GENERAL GOALS			
		FIVE-YEAR	ONE-YEAR	SIX-MONTH	ONE- MONTH
	SELF-SERVICE: Physical maintenance activities such as eating sleeping, exercising, personal care, etc.				
	PROFESSIONAL: Your work - that which brings in the money to support your lifestyle.				
	FAMILY: Your parent role, spouse role, and son/daughter role.				
	SOCIAL-CULTURAL-RECREATIONAL: Activities you participate in with friends, usually for enjoyment.				
	COMMUNITY: Voluntary political or philanthropic associations.				
	RELIGION OR CHURCH: Religious activities in which you participate.				
	PERSONAL: Activities you do essentially alone such as pleasure reading, hobbies, etc.				

Adapted from Halverson, Don E. Time Management, San Mateo County Office of Education

DAILY RECORD OF TIME USAGE SHEET

Date_____

To evaluate your improvements, make out a copy to compare later.

Time	Task
7:30 - 7:45	
7:45 - 8:00	
8:00 - 8:15	
8:15 - 8:30	
8:30 - 8:45	
8:45 - 9:00	
9:00 - 9:15	
9:15 - 9:30	
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3:45 - 4:00	
4:00 - 4:15	
4:15 - 4:30	
4:30 - 4:45	
4:45 - 5:00	
Evening:	

Notes:

Resource Teacher Time Utilization: An Observational Study

LAURENCE R. SARGENT

Abstract: Lack of adequate descriptive data supporting the operation and efficacy of resource room programs prompted the investigation of resource teacher time utilization. To measure time use, a time sampling technique was employed and compared with teacher estimates of their time use. The teachers were found to spend less time than they estimated for direct instruction, participating in staffings, and working with Individualized Education Programs (IEP's). They spent more time than estimated on preparing for instruction and general school duties. In addition, no differences in the distribution of time use were found for teachers serving larger and smaller numbers of pupils.

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■ As part of the movement to integrate handicapped children into the mainstream of regular education, resource room programs emerged as a predominant service delivery approach for mildly disabled pupils. Civil rights issues prompted many professional educators to encourage resource program implementation without a great deal of data to support the function or effectiveness of resource teaching models.

Resource room proponents described these programs as attempts to keep mildly handicapped children enrolled in the mainstream by sharing responsibilities with regular educators; serving the children in the resource setting for no more than a few hours per day; and offering support to the regular program through special materials, consultation, and inservice training. The advantages anticipated for this approach included suppositions that children would incur less stigma by being assigned to regular classes, they could be served in their neighborhood schools, resource teachers would have a multiplier effect, and placements would be more acceptable to parents (Coursen, 1976; Hammill, 1972; Hammill & Wiederholt, 1972; Lott, 1975; Reger & Koppman, 1971; Sabatino, 1972; Wiederholt, Hammill, & Brown, 1978).

OBSERVATIONAL DATA NEEDED

Before evaluating the effectiveness of resource programing, its operation and function had to be examined. Unfortunately, administrative descriptions of resource teacher models represented conceptualizations of program oper-

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ation rather than descriptions of programs in actual operation. According to Semmel (1975), descriptions of administrative operations had little utility in differentiating between special education programs. He added that these verbal descriptions of programs provided insufficient evidence that shared responsibility, planning, and implementation had become reality.

Sindelar and Deno (1978) pointed out that neither the efficacy of resource programs nor the function of program components had been adequately verified. Further, Brandt (1972, 1975) indicated that observable evidence of innovations was seldom available for so-called innovative programs. He suggested that until a considerable amount of descriptive investigation occurred, one could only guess how widespread particular practices were or how applicable the findings of selected studies were in school settings.

As pointed out by Semmel (1975), Sindelar and Deno (1978), and Brandt (1975), much more data, especially observational data, were needed to verify the workings of resource programs. The purpose of this study was to begin the process of collecting such data in the school setting. The investigator chose to focus on finding out how resource teachers use their professional time, how pupil load affects distribution of teacher time use, and how observation of time use compares with teachers' perceptions of time use.

METHOD

In this study, data were collected on only one aspect of resource room programing, that is, the percentage of time resource teachers spend on specified activities. The activities, selected from the professional literature and administrative descriptions of resource programs, included:

1. Direct instruction
2. Consulting with staff
3. Consulting with parents
4. Conducting inservice training
5. Preparation and planning for instruction
6. Participating in staffings
7. Assessment and evaluation
8. Preparation and maintenance of Individualized Education Programs (IEP's)
9. Record keeping
10. General school duties

The specified activities were defined broadly enough to include all of the teachers' job related work.

Participants

This study of resource room teachers' time utilization was conducted in five states representing major geographic regions of the country. Resource teachers within a 60 mile radius of the following cities participated: Rochester, New York; Dubuque, Iowa; New Orleans, Louisiana; Greeley, Colorado; and Sacramento, California. Up to 40 resource teachers serving mildly handicapped pupils in each of the five areas were surveyed.

Resource teachers were defined as teachers certified in special education, assigned to a classroom, providing direct instruction, responsible for writing IEP's, consulting with regular class teachers, serving no student for greater than a half day daily, assessing pupil performance, and participating in staffings. Of the 144 respondents, 132 resource teachers fit the descriptions of resource programs being used in this study. To randomize the selection of teachers for observation, each qualifying returned questionnaire was assigned to its geographic group and given a two digit number. The first five lines of a random number chart (Kerlinger, 1973) were used to select six resource teachers from each geographic area to be observed in their classrooms.

Data Collection

In response to the survey questionnaires, resource teachers provided the number of students served and two time utilization estimates. First, they estimated the time spent on each of the specified activities; second, they estimated the percentage of time needed to perform each activity adequately. Since many of the specified activities do not occur every day, the estimates represented averages over the entire school year.

To collect data to compare with teacher estimates, trained observers spent two sessions, one morning and one afternoon, observing each of the 30 randomly selected resource teachers while they were at school or attending job related functions. To acquire a distributed sampling of activities, no two observations of a single teacher occurred on the same day, and observations were spread out between March 1 and May 21, 1979. A total of 60 observations

were made and care was taken to ensure that, in each geographic area, both morning and afternoon observations were made on every day of the work week.

During the observations, teachers' activities were recorded at 2 minute intervals using a time sampling technique (Hall, Hawkins, & Axelrod, 1975) selected because of its proven accuracy and convenience (Baer, 1977). To ensure the reliability of the observations, teachers recorded their own activities on data recording sheets at five random times during sessions when the observer was recording data. Interobserver agreement was obtained by comparing the time interval recordings made by teachers with the same interval recordings made by the observers. Interobserver data was collected during 32 of the 60 observational sessions, and a 97% rate of agreement was obtained.

A null hypothesis was proposed that there would be no significant differences between teachers' estimates of time spent, estimates of time needed, and time use recorded through a time sampling technique. A second null hypothesis was proposed that no differences in distribution of time use occurred between teachers serving larger and smaller numbers of pupils.

The percentage estimates of time spent, estimates of time needed, and recorded time use were compared using a $2 \times 10 \times 3$ analysis of variance design with repeated measures on the third variable (Kirk, 1968). Differences in time use were also compared for teachers serving 19 or more pupils and 18 or fewer pupils. In addition, Kirk's (1968) *t*-test procedure for comparing means used in a three-way analysis of variance equation was used to find significance across time use variables for each specified activity. Through this procedure, significance was calculated by comparing the differences between: (a) estimated time needed and estimated time spent; (b) estimated time spent and recorded time use; and (c) estimated time needed and recorded time use.

RESULTS

The distribution of resource teacher time as measured by a time sampling procedure, showed 51.48% of time spent in direct instruction; 8.51% in consulting with staff; 3.6% in consulting with parents; 0% in conducting in-service training; 16.38% in preparation and planning for instruction; 2.8% in participating in staffings; 1.38% in preparation and maintenance of IEP's; 3.77% in record keeping; and 9.22% in general school duties. The mean percentages for time use variables including estimates are reported in Table 1.

The first null hypothesis was rejected when significant differences were found between the teachers' estimated time spent, estimated time needed, and recorded time use, F (2, 560) = 26.75, $p < .001$. The analysis of variance data is reported in Table 2.

Through use of *t*-tests (Kirk, 1968), significant differences at the .05 level were found between the estimated time spent and estimated time needed variables for direct instruction, preparation and planning for instruction, and assessment and evaluation. In addition, significant differences at the .05 level were found between estimated time spent and recorded time use variables for direct instruction, preparation and maintenance of IEP's, and general school duties. The differences between estimated time needed and recorded time use were also significant for direct instruction, assessment and evaluation, working with IEP's, and general school duties. No significant differences were found between time use variables for consulting with staff, con-

TABLE 1

Mean Percentages for Time Use Variables

Activity	*Estimated time used*	*Estimated time needed*	*Measured time use*
Direct instruction	63.67	69.86	51.48
Consulting with staff	7.13	10.93	8.51
Consulting with parents	3.73	7.71	3.6
Conducting inservice	1.25	4.08	0
Preparation for instruction	12.08	17.6	16.38
Staffings	5.05	6.45	2.8
Assessment and evaluation	7.68	13.83	8.82
Work with IEP's	5.92	9.15	1.38
Record keeping	5.38	7.27	3.77
General school duties	3.1	3.6	9.22

Note: $N = 30$

TABLE 2

Analysis of Variance for Pupil Load, Specified Activities, and Time Use Percentages

Source	*df*	SS	MS	F
Between S's	299	293752.86	982.4	
Pupil load (A)	1	9.42	9.42	.068
Activities (B)	9	254347.22	28260.8	202.97*
AB	9	410.02	45.56	.327
Error	280	38986.20	139.24	
Within S's	600	45203.63	75.34	
Time percentages (C)	2	3324.46	1662.18	26.749*
AC	2	143.83	71.99	1.157
BC	18	5875.59	326.42	5.235*
ABC	18	1061.13	58.95	.949
Error	560	34798.72	62.14	
Total	899	338956.49		

*Significant at .05 and .01 levels

sulting with parents, inservice instruction, and record keeping. The *t*-test comparisons are reported in Table 3.

The second null hypothesis was retained. No significant differences in the distribution of time were found between teachers serving larger and smaller numbers of pupils.

Of interest though not an objective of this study, was the fact that regional differences occurred in the number of pupils served. The mean number of pupils served by area were Rochester, 19.64; New Orleans, 19.48; Greeley, 13.15; Sacramento, 23.54; and Dubuque, 16.13.

DISCUSSION

Resource room teachers' estimates of time needed to perform their duties adequately was significantly greater than either their estimated time use or recorded time use. This may indicate that resource teachers need more time to accomplish their duties satisfactorily. However, their expressed need for more time may indicate feelings similar to those of other teachers or persons in any profession.

More importantly, teachers' estimates of time use may not be reliable indicators of actual time use. When estimates were compared to time use recorded through a time sampling procedure, teachers in this study underestimated time spent on preparation for instruction and general school duties. They overestimated the amount of time spent on direct instruction, working with IEP's, and participating in staffings. These findings indicate that programing and funding judgments should not be based only on teacher estimates of time use.

Direct instruction takes more of the resource teacher's time than any of the other specified activities, although teachers tended to overestimate the time spent on direct instruction. This finding may result from a number of interruptions in the teaching schedule. The observers noted interruption in the instructional schedule when students remained with their regular classes to engage in special activities, to attend school assemblies, and to participate in various other events during instructional times. Resource teachers interrupted the instructional schedule to engage in activities such as consulting, assessing pupils being considered for placement, and staffings. Interruptions in instruction might be reduced by careful scheduling and the provision of additional personnel to accomplish such things as assessing children.

When surveyed, a majority of respondents indicated that they were expected to provide inservice training instruction; however, no data were recorded on the provision of inservice training by resource teachers. In addition, their estimates of time spent in this activity averaged only 1.25%. This finding may indicate that resource programs have a smaller multiplier effect than early proponents anticipated. The data also indicates that this activity should be removed from program descrip-

TABLE 3

Time Use Variables *t*-test

Activity	*Comparisons*	*Significance*
Direct instruction	$B<(t=2.99^{**})<A<(5.89^{**})<C$	significant
Consulting with staff	$B<C<A$	not significant
Consulting with parents	$B<A<C$	not significant
Inservice instruction	$B<A<C$	not significant
Preparation for instruction	$B<(2.66^{*})<A<C$	significant
Staffings	$B<A<C$	not significant
Assessment and evaluation	$B<(2.42^{*})<C<A$	significant
Work with IEP's	$B<A<(2.19^{*})<C$	significant
Record keeping	$B<A<C$	not significant
General school duties	$C<(2.71^{*})<B<A$	significant

Note: A = estimated time use; B = estimated time needed; C = measured time use.
* Numbers in parentheses represent significant t-ratios at .05 level.
** Significant at .01 level

tions or that school administrators need to work toward facilitating inservice training conducted by resource teachers.

Resource room teachers were observed spending less time on IEP's (1.38%) than their estimates for this activity. This may be explained by noting that: (a) Teachers write IEP's almost exclusively at the beginning and end of the school year when observations were not made; (b) Teachers work on IEP's at home because no school facilities or equipment are needed to accomplish this task; and (c) Teachers find the task so irksome that they overestimate the amount of time spent in preparation of these documents. These data may indicate that efforts should be made to distribute the IEP workload throughout more of the year, that teachers need released time to adequately prepare IEP's, and that support, such as data retrieval systems, should be made available to help make the task less annoying.

Surprisingly, the distribution of teacher time across the 10 specified activities was not affected by the numbers of pupils served. The investigator had anticipated that teachers serving larger numbers of pupils would spend a greater portion of their time writing IEP's, keeping records, participating in staffings, and preparing for instruction than teachers serving smaller numbers of students. One possible explanation is that while at home, teachers accomplish a significant portion of the extra work created by having more students. A second plausible explanation is that teachers with larger numbers of students prepare and teach group lessons, while teachers with smaller numbers of students engage in more individualized instruction. As the result of these grouping procedures, both the teachers serving larger and smaller numbers of pupils used their time in proportionately the same manner.

NEED FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

During the course of this investigation, the need to conduct additional research on resource teacher time use became evident. The following additional research appears warranted to confirm the findings of this study:

1. A greater number of observations should be made in more locations to ensure that chances for observing on atypical days are reduced.
2. Resource teachers should be observed over the entire school year. The observational data collected in this study and the interpretations of the data analysis are applicable only to the middle and late portions of the school year.
3. Further study is needed to account for time spent on preparation and paperwork at home. In this study, no provisions were made for measuring time spent on work after the normal workday.
4. The area of staff consultation needs to be broken down to differentiate between everyday business and consultations for the purpose of facilitating integration of hand-

icapped children into regular classrooms. The observers noted few instances of the second type.

5. Perhaps the weakest aspect of resource room programs discovered in the review of the literature and in this accounting of resource teacher time use is the lack of established priorities for how resource teacher time should be spent. The most important needed research on time use will identify priorities for resource teacher time use.

The present time use study covers only a small part of the research needed to verify what services are actually provided through resource room programing. More observational research must be accomplished before the suppositions of resource program proponents can be supported.

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TIME MANAGEMENT

Setting up a successful Resource Specialist Program requires many organizational skills. Being able to manage your time efficiently becomes crucial when you begin to balance responsibilities including assessment, instruction, and coordination.

An important concept to keep in mind when you begin to organize your program is knowing where you are going. By using a "task/systems analysis" approach, determine:

1. Specific responsibilities.
2. Sources of support and interferences.
3. How your administration and faculty see your functions.

Once all these expectations, obligations and activities are determined, you can begin prioritizing and developing a workable schedule for yourself and your instructional aide.

The following are very brief suggestions for your consideration in improving your use of time and perhaps in finding the 25th hour in each day:

1. Use an appointment book. Carry it with you. Keep your aide informed, particularly if she is helping you set up meetings, child study team staffings, etc.

2. Keep a "THINGS TO DO" list and add to it regularly. It may be something that you want to do just before you leave in the afternoon to organize yourself for the next day. Don't fail to cross off what you have done for a sense of completion and accomplishment.

3. Clean off your desk or work area. T O S S ! Often 80 percent of the material on it is worthless or belongs in a file or binder. Only go through your mail and memos once! Don't let them pile up day after day. File everything when you get it. Try to put away papers/folders you are working on before you start something new.

4. Recognize that your supply of energy varies in a day. Become aware of these energy cycles and schedule your activities accordingly.

5. Determine how you prioritize your activities when you have time for the "office work". Ask yourself these questions the next time:

   a. Do I consciously select the most important item to work on?
   b. Do I pick up the first thing I see?
   c. Do I work on the item or project that interests me the most?
   d. Do I work on the easiest problem?

   If you answered anything except "a", you need to develop the habit of establishing priorities.

6. Learn to write up your classroom observations during or immediately after the visit. You will forget less and do a much better job.

7. Learn to use all those spare minutes while waiting for an appointment, for a meeting to start, while waiting on phone calls, etc. Never be without a pen and paper for those important memos and notes.

8. Two suggestions for handling correspondence:

   a. Handle any piece of paper only once!
   b. Write short answers on the original correspondence, Xerox one copy for your file and return the original.

9. Telephone logs:

   a. Keep a list of frequently placed calls; i.e., district office, parents' work and home numbers.
   b. Keep a card file of useful numbers and contact names; i.e., Mental Health, probation, police, emergency number, family contacts, continuation school.
   c. You may want to log all of your important incoming and outgoing calls with data including date, time, name of caller, topic, and action.

****

TIME MANAGEMENT ACTIVITY

Directions:

List the suggestions you would give to a new resource specialist in regards to managing his/her time with all the varied responsibilities. Share your list with other group members.

PRE-TEST

TIME MANAGEMENT

True False

_____ _____ 1. Though time management is important, it does not constitute a major factor in the effectiveness of a manager.

_____ _____ 2. Effective managers know where their time goes.

_____ _____ 3. Blocks of time should be scheduled into the day for planning sessions.

_____ _____ 4. Putting more time on the job assures the manager of a better outcome.

_____ _____ 5. Every manager should spend at least 25% of his time improving his/her capabilities (input time).

MULTIPLE CHOICE

Answer

_____ 6. The greatest time waster is:

a. standing in line for lunch
b. waiting for the copying machine
c. telling aides where to find things
d. looking for things you mislaid

_____ 7. One of the following is generally the most difficult to change:

a. personal goals
b. school site schedules
c. spending time on trivia
d. doing what you like to do

_____ 8. One of the most effective ways to improve meeting effectiveness is:

a. do not set time limits
b. prepare an agenda
c. limit speaking time to five minutes regardless of topic
d. do not establish follow-up procedures on items discussed.

_____ 9. One way to develop an effective team relationship with an aide:

a. is to build on the aide's weaknesses.
b. is to disregard inservice training opportunities
c. is to discuss priorities, schedule changes, special activities, etc., each day to develop coordinated efforts
d. is to criticize him/her when a mistake is made

10. Most ineffective managers spend too much time:

a. worrying
b. planning
c. putting out fires
d. keeping an "open door" policy

Answers: 1. F; 2. T; 3. T; 4. F; 5. T; 6. a; 7. b; 8. b; 9. c; 10. c.

TIME MANAGEMENT OUTLINE

Understanding and utilizing the basic elements of time management can save you time. In order to improve your management of time, it is important to:

I. Understand the basic concepts of time management.

II. Know how you spend your time.

III. Prioritize your goals and organize your time accordingly.

IV. Utilize a few basic time management tools.

SUMMARY

1. Determine your goals and objectives in all major aspects of your life.
2. Devote at least 25% of your work week to personal improvement in your managerial role.
3. Block out a large amount of time daily for planning in your major management areas.
4. Know and keep track of where your time goes.
5. Prioritize your time to match your high-level objectives.
6. Avoid barriers to effective time usage such as interruptions, t. v. etc.
7. Plan for and utilize basic time management tools such as proper delegation, role definition, aide development.

POST-TEST

TIME MANAGEMENT

1. List at least five time wasters you can do something about.
   a.
   b.
   c.
   d.
   e.

2. List at least five basic principles of time management that, if you followed, you would become a more effective manager.
   a.
   b.
   c.
   d.
   e.

3. List the proper sequence of the following steps in determining effective use of time.

   _____a. Monitor your plan.

   _____b. Determine your objectives.

   _____c. Allocate appropriate time to priority objectives.

   _____d. Determine your goals.

   _____e. Prioritize your goals and objectives.

   _____f. Check how you spent your time last week.

ANSWERS TO POST-TEST

1. Time Wasters - Select any 5 (or others which have merit)

   a. television
   b. telephone
   c. commuting time
   d. doing low-priority activities
   e. never saying "No"
   f. office traditions
   g. executive hobbies
   h. Protestant ethic
   i. unclear role definition
   j. assuming a temporary condition

2. Basic Principles of Time Management - Select any 5

   a. Establish written goals and objectives
   b. Periodically check goals, objectives, and activities with your employer
   c. Develop a plan for each role
   d. Establish proper working conditions
   e. Delegate
   f. Use a pocket daytimer/calendar
   g. Block out your time
   h. Develop a secretary/aide
   i. Have periodic evaluation meetings
   j. Have a daily creative time
   k. Improve reading and listening skills

3. Proper Sequence

   d
   b
   e
   f
   c
   a

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TIME ANALYSIS

Directions

1. Using the Inventory of Personal Skills and Habits on the next page, picture yourself yesterday or during a typical weekday. Imagine yourself at work and at home, experience the sights, sounds, and details of the day. In the space for each, write what you did.

2. Circle the time period when you think you functioned best and most productively.

3. Draw a square around the time period in which you were least energetic, least productive.

4. List 10 tasks you need to do during a typical day.

(1)_____ P U S W

(2)_____ P U S W

(3)_____ P U S W

(4)_____ P U S W

(5)_____ P U S W

(6)_____ P U S W

(7)_____ P U S W

(8)_____ P U S W

(9)_____ P U S W

(10)_____ P U S W

5. Next, put a "P" next to the items you would tend to do during your most productive times and a "U" next to the items you would do during your least productive times as identified in your Inventory.

6. Evaluate: do you tend to do your most important work during your productive, energetic periods? If yes, then you are getting good productivity for your efforts. If not, try to re-order your schedule.

7. We all have "shoulds" in our lives, of course--demands of a job, housework, grocery shopping, paying bills. But at least some of your activities should be things you really enjoy or want to do. Too many "shoulds" will make you feel out of control. Go back over your Inventory and write an "S" for each should and a "W" for each want. If there are too many shoulds, keep it in mind as you do future planning.

INVENTORY OF PERSONAL SKILLS AND HABITS

7:00 A.M.	EARLY
8:00	MORNING
9:00	
10:00	MID MORNING
11:00	
12:00 P.M.	MID DAY
1:00	
2:00	MID
3:00	AFTERNOON
4:00	
5:00	LATE
6:00	AFTERNOON
7:00	EARLY
8:00	EVENING
9:00	MID EVENING
10:00	
11:00	NIGHT
12:00	

TIME WASTERS

We all waste a certain amount of time--even the most productive among us. The trick is to keep it to a minimum. While we may say things like "that meeting sure was a waste of time," we too seldom take the time to look at what is stealing our precious time.

Look back at your Inventory and see if you can identify your ten biggest timewasters. Write them down on the list below. Decide whether each was caused by someone or something else, or your own fault. Write E or I (external or internal) next to each timewaster.

Next, think of a possible solution to each item on the list. It could be as simple as rescheduling your morning coffee so that it's a reward for completing certain tasks instead of a way to put off starting them.

TIMEWASTERS	EXTERNALLY CAUSED	INTERNALLY CAUSED
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		
7.		
8.		
9.		
10.		

PARENT EDUCATION

The Resource Specialist shall demonstrate the following skills, knowledge, and/or performance competencies.

(1) Provide parents with basic knowledge of assessment procedures and instrumentations, and how to utilize the information.

(2) Provide parents with basic understanding of remedial methods and techniques as they relate to their own child's program.

(3) Provide parents with basic home enrichment and home management techniques designed to meet the needs of their child.

(4) Counsel parents in areas related to their child's abilities, including strengths and weaknesses, as well as to the child's needs and goals, including career and vocational planning alternatives.

(5) Provide parents with information as to effective utilization of community resources.

(6) Assist in planning of parent education workshops.

PARENT EDUCATION

TIME	CONTENT	ACTIVITY	MEDIA	HANDOUTS
5 min	Review CTPL regs. re: parent education*			
20 min	Introduce video tape -background and focus		"What About Tomorrow" (stop tape before discussion of PL 94-142)	"On Being the Parent o a Handicapped Child"
15 min	Debrief video -understanding feelings of parents	LG: Brainstorm: "What do you think are some of the feelings that parents of handicapped children feel?" "Who of you are parents? Can you relate to the feelings we've just described?" "What can you as a Resource Specialist do to help parents in dealing with some of these feelings?"	OH# 26 to 29	
20 min	Share ideas re: Communication with parent support/involvement information *Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing	"What concrete activities can you as Resource Specialist implement to involve parents in the whole special education process?"		

Trainer Notes

PARENT EDUCATION

Objectives:

-Participants will express an appreciation of the parents' viewpoint/ feelings about having a child in special education.
-Participants will identify componsnets of their role in working together with parents and the available resources to carry out that role.

Materials:

-Videotape may be borrowed from your local SERN or from:

California State Department
of Education
Personnel Development Unit
721 Capitol Mall
Sacramento, CA 95814

Introduction:

The tape was developed to provide an overview of all aspects of being a parent of a handicapped child. It should be noted that these parents represent all levels of handicapping conditions in placements from Resource Specialist to the self-contained classroom, and yet they all share the same feelings and concerns (7 minutes). The film should be shown up to the point of the PL 94-142 explanation (20 minutes).

Debriefing Videotape:

The focus of the discussion should be threefold:

-Identify the feelings of the parents.
-Draw parallels between participants' experiences and those of the parent in the tape.
-Describe ways the Resource Specialist can assist parents in dealing with these feelings.

Brainstorm:

To share ideas for parent support, involvement, and information:

-Listen to the parent. They know the child better than anyone else.
-Communicate.
-Create an atmosphere that will encourage free and open communication, jargon-free.
-Focus on the child as a "whole" human being.
-Set up a parent support group--parents learning from each other.
-Provide parent education on legal rights, IEP process, use of resources, etc., as needed.
-Set up a resource file and parent library for individual use.

GUIDELINES TO PARENT CONFERENCING

DO

1. Do select one or two major goals for the conference.
2. Do be on time.
3. Do be prepared in advance.
4. Do remember that you're talking to another adult and not a child.
5. Do KISS - "Keep It Simple and Straight".
6. Do watch body language and voice tone.
7. Do provide support when appropriate.
8. Do abandon and yell for help when necessary.
9. Do share information with child in advance when possible.
10. Do share some positive feedback with all parents.
11. Do keep information confidential.
12. Do give the parent plenty of time to share his/her perceptions.
13. Do provide for R & R following conferences.

DON'T

1. Don't minimize the problem.
2. Don't use jargon.
3. Don't make promises that can't be kept.
4. Don't be afraid to interrupt.
5. Don't share personal experiences.
6. Don't say anything that you wouldn't want the child to know.
7. Don't argue.
8. Don't take things personally.
9. Don't cover too much information.
10. Don't drag the conference out too long.

WHEN MY SON, BRUCE, ENTERED THE FIRST GRADE, HIS REPORT CARD SAID, "HE VERBALIZES DURING CLASS AND PERIODICALLY ENGAGES IN EXCURSIONS UP AND DOWN THE AISLES."

IN THE SIXTH GRADE, HIS TEACHER SAID, "WHAT CAN WE DO WITH A CHILD WHO DOES NOT RELATE TO SOCIAL INTERACTION?" (I RAN HOME AND GOT OUT MY DICTIONARY.)

AT THE START OF HIS SENIOR YEAR, BRUCE'S ADVISOR SAID, "THIS YEAR WILL HOPEFULLY OPEN UP OPTIONS FOR [illegible]ON SO HE CAN REALIZE HIS POTENTIAL AND AIM FOR TANGIBLE GOALS."

ON MY WAY OUT, I ASKED THE SECRETARY, "DO YOU SPEAK ENGLISH?" (SHE NODDED.) "WHAT WAS SHE TELLING ME?"

"BRUCE IS GOOFING OFF.", THE SECRETARY SAID FLATLY.

I DON'T KNOW IF EDUCATION IS HELPING BRUCE OR NOT, BUT IT'S CERTAINLY IMPROVING MY VOCABULARY!

(From AT WIT'S END by Erma Bombeck
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Toward a Realistic Image of Parents:
A Teacher's Point of View

By Jo Israelson

Children spend an average of six hours per day within the walls of an educational setting. If we subtract two 20-minute recess periods, a one-hour lunch period, and 30 minutes of counseling or sex education, then direct teaching time can be estimated to be 2.6 hours per day. If we divide this by one teacher with approximately 30 students, then the end result is an incredibly large amount of education which needs to be gained outside of school.

Most teachers would concede that parents are a child's first and major teachers. Skills that are necessary for success in school are often directly tied to the experiences a child encounters before entering school, even experiences as remote as the prenatal care a mother receives.

Recently schools have been assuming a greater percentage of the "parenting" role in an effort to eradicate some nonschool deprivations. School breakfasts, free lunches, after-school recreational and daycare programs, and tutoring may help children, but they also make parents feel inadequate. As schools and teachers expand their roles, both parents and educators are affected.

Educators base their images of parents on the role models they themselves have directly experienced or hoped for. Perceiving parents as receptive to teachers' needs, teachers recall note exchanges, report card endorsements, lunch box snacks, P.T.A. papas, homework help, and parents who say, "Be good, pay attention, work hard."

Teachers with these traditional values are now being confronted with an unfamiliar specter—the single head of a household or two working parents. Accompanying the altered roles are altered behaviors. It seems that the Dr. Spock version of "Mama" and Father-Knows-Best "Papa" are gone forever.

Teachers often comment that today's parents have little responsibility toward their children. As accountability increases and more demands are made by parent-child advocacy groups, teachers begin to lament the death of their own classroom role and the role of the "model parent."

The various stages of the mourning process that parents experience when they learn about a child's disability have been described by many writers. The remainder of this paper attempts to describe the variety of stages teachers often work through when confronted with the death of the model parent.

Denial

Beginning in September, teachers face the coming year with trepidation. They wonder whether the children will learn all they should, how many behavior problems will arise, and if their own creativity and energy will last. Also, the teacher wonders what kind of parental support there will be, and how much.

When a teacher first meets parents at initial meetings, report card conferences and crisis counseling sessions he relies on his established role of the authority figure to conduct the meeting. When that particular crisis or issue is resolved, then the teacher dispenses with the parent who is desperately needed as an ally. The teacher has only engaged the parent in a superficial discussion of the problem child and never really takes the time to learn about that parent as an individual.

Then the fateful day arises and the teacher again seeks the crisis conference necessary to solve a problem or initiate a solution. But this time no one comes to his or her aid. Is it that the parent is too busy, too far removed from the situation, resigned to let the school handle it, or too involved in his own problems? The teacher asks, "Why me? My own parents would never have acted this way. I've done lesson plans, report cards, weekly newsletters, phone calls. How can they fail me when I'm ready for their help?"

The teacher re-evaluates this parent in terms of "never returned notes" and "never supported

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P.T.A." The teacher retreats from further contact with this "nonmodel parent," returns to isolation, reaffirms the authoritarian role and perhaps assumes additional responsibilities toward the child.

Anger and Envy

As this isolation continues, anger and envy may ensue. For whatever reasons a teacher teaches—love of children, love of learning, job security—the failure of a child is possibly a direct reflection of the teacher's success or lack of it.

Anger becomes resentment or maybe rage directed toward parents who, according to the teacher, have not fulfilled their obligations to the child in either physical or emotional ways. Envy toward other teachers with "model parents," and therefore model pupils, creates professional tensions and a great deal of critical self-evaluation.

Bargaining

At some point during the year, teachers rekindle a hope that their "model parent" may still exist. They may begin to initiate bargains with themselves, their supervisors, and their students; they plan parent-teacher communication workshops, give prizes to classes that have the most parents at P.T.A. or praise the children who bring homework denoting parent support. (All this is done *by* the school, *for* the parent.)

No amount of "what ifs" will reach the unresponsive parent. A teacher can promise daily goodwill phone calls; but they will only be achieved if the parents have a phone, the parent is home, they are ready to listen, and equal respect exists. Respect grows from interaction, of which there is often very little.

Depression and Guilt

Soon depression replaces "what ifs." Realism becomes the mentor. No longer will the teacher hope for recovery in the relationship. Along with depression, a two-headed animal rears its head—deep grief combined with deep guilt.

Death of any kind brings remorse. For teachers, the model parent's death is often the loss of any expectation for a child to change or succeed. Many teachers realize their influence is minimal compared to that of a parent and thus feel failure. Teachers view this death as destroying all hope they had for the children, and for themselves as professionals.

Guilt brings with it questions: Were goals too high? Were attempts insufficient? Blame, displacement, and rationalization all lead back to a teacher's belief that he or she did not do enough to relate to that parent or educate the child.

Resignation, Acceptance and Renewal

Resignation, which is different from acceptance, may follow guilt. Teachers may totally give in to those things which do not go the way they want them to. A teacher may erect a stronger wall between himself and the parent. Without expectations there are no disappointments; without communication there are no confrontations.

If teachers move from guilt to acceptance, then there is hope. Teachers can then begin to bury their image of the model parent and replace it with their own pedestal of clay. Placing themselves on equal footing with parents allows teachers to see parents as they are, whether they are economically or educationally deprived, overworked, or simply different from the teacher's expected image.

At this point a teacher becomes less egocentric and more empathetic. Maybe the educator will seek assistance from specialists or begin the task of getting to know parents as individuals. Where there is hope, there are new possibilities and approaches. And there is always next September! ■

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The Professional's Dilemma: Learning to Work With Parents

by Milton Seligman and Patricia Ann Seligman

If professionals do not understand the sources of their own stress, then they may prematurely label parental behavior rather than understand it.

Attention has been focused on children with disabilities—their characteristics, learning and behavioral styles, as well as their medical and educational needs. More recently, an increased awareness and understanding of the families of these children has occurred, with particular emphasis on the impact a disabled child has on the family.

As a consequence of this heightened study of exceptional families and their circumstances, the relationship between families and the professionals from whom they seek help has come under scrutiny. Although we need much more information about the nature of parent-professional relationships, especially from a research perspective, there are indications that this important partnership is sometimes less than satisfactory—especially from the parents' point of view.

Collaborative relationships, whether between husband and wife or between parents of children with disabilities and professionals, are dependent on the positive contributions of both parties. From this perspective, when parent-professional relationships are poor we can assume that both parties contribute to the situation. Therefore, both parents and professionals must work to improve their relationship.

In the past parents were usually held responsible for all difficulties. Although parents do contribute to difficulties, we hold that the "expert," because of professional training and vocational commitment, must bear the major responsibility for developing positive working relationships.

To establish a positive working relationship with parents, professionals need to understand 1) the impact of professionals on parents during the search for help, 2) the impact of the child with a disability on the entire family over an extended period of time, and 3) the impact that the child and the family have on the professional.

Impact of Professionals on Parents

Problems can emerge when the parents have their first meeting with a professional. The parents may have consulted or contacted a variety of "experts" before this meeting. At the end of the consultation they may also indicate that they intend to see yet another expert. Professionals often label this behavior as "shopping around." They often feel that shopping around is an indication of the parents' denial of the child's problems. They believe that parents are endlessly searching for a favorable diagnosis or or an optimistic prognosis. This labeling may obscure the professional's understanding of the parents' behavior.

Actually, parents may consult other professionals for perfectly legitimate reasons. They may wish another opinion, or may want to have the initial diagnosis and current program reviewed. For some parents, going from professional to professional may be precipitated by the changing needs of their child. Also, many parents feel they have been treated with little respect in the past. They may be seeking professionals who have the required expertise *and* who treat them as human beings.

Impact of Child With a Disability on Family

We believe that it is wrong to ignore the strain a disabled child places on the family. It is equally wrong to consider this situation as significantly different from the effect any tragic event has on the family unit. The difference, however, is the

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chronicity of the strain (if in fact the family reacts with strain) of having a disabled child, as opposed to the more short-lived traumas that are part of everyday family life.

Everyone needs time to adjust to problems that may be chronic. Some turmoil is common during adjustment. In any event, a professional conclusion that turmoil means the family is emotionally unstable reflects a jaundiced and negative view of families who happen to have a child with a disability. Research has illustrated the phases that families go through as they adjust to the child's disability. It is necessary for professionals who work with parents of disabled children to understand coping mechanisms parents use during the different adjustment phases. Variation from these patterns may reflect problems which require psychological help.

Some professionals assume that all exceptional parents have difficulty accepting their child and they feel this is unhealthy. The key word here is "unhealthy." Knowledgeable professionals would consider the lack of acceptance, assuming that it is accurately assessed in the first place, as a natural reaction when parents first learn of their child's exceptionality. It is important for professionals to be able to distinguish between the lack of acceptance, when it occurs early, and long-term denial, which may indicate that some type of counseling is needed. In both instances exceptional parents can hardly be considered emotionally disturbed but, similar to a recently divorced spouse, they need time—and sometimes counseling—to become accustomed to the new situation.

Parents may feel depressed when they first learn about the child's difficulty. Professionals sometimes attribute these feelings to the process called "internalization of unacceptable hostility or death wishes toward the disabled child." I.e., the feelings of anger parents can have toward the child are so upsetting that they deflect these angry feelings toward themselves. The assumption is that turning anger toward oneself leads to feelings of depression. Such thoughts and feelings occur to all parents, not only those of disabled children, and these feelings do not necessarily constitute unhealthy reactions. Here again the professional needs to distinguish ordinary, temporary depression from chronic depression where professional help is needed.

Some parents are afraid of letting anyone else take care of their youngster who has a disability. This makes it difficult for the parents to have any time to themselves and it can make it difficult for the child to learn to work with other people.

This behavior has been labeled "parental overprotectiveness" by professionals and has been attributed to repressed hostility toward the handicapped child. According to this theoretical explanation, the parent feels angry toward the child for being disabled and/or for being difficult. Because hostile feelings are unacceptable, they are pushed out of awareness, only to resurface as the exact opposite of hostility—overprotectiveness.

This explanation of parental overprotectiveness is but one of several possible explanations for this behavior. Professionals may misconstrue realistic protective measures as parental overprotectiveness. Even when the behavior is inappropriate, it would also be more productive for professionals to focus on the behavior—overprotectiveness—to help parents understand the potentially harmful effect it may have on their child. This approach would be more effective than to view it as an emotional disturbance.

Professionals are just as liable to feelings of denial as are parents.

Impact of Child and Family on Professionals

Working with the pain and anguish that parents and children with disabilities experience arouses intense feelings. We have already discussed the impact of a disabled child on the family. Yet the impact of the child's difficulties on professionals and the ways it can affect their work is often ignored. If professionals do not understand the sources of their *own* stress, then they may prematurely label parental behavior rather than understand it.

Research tells us that societal attitudes toward those who are "different" in some way tend to be negative. Not surprisingly, the response of professionals toward those they serve is not always positive. Negative attitudes are often transferred into stereotypes—distorted, erroneous and rigid views of a particular group of people.

Our own subjective feelings are not always clear to us. Yet the more aware of our "inner experiencing" we are, the better we are able to modify negative feelings that can interfere with collaborative relationships. For example, it is useful to be able to distinguish between subjective feelings of empathy (truly understanding someone else's circumstances) from feelings of sympathy (which can be characterized as a feeling of "you poor thing"). Professionals who consistently experience feelings of sympathy, pity, fear or hostility toward parents of disabled children should consider another field of endeavor.

Other feelings that professionals can have, such as hopelessness and disgust, are difficult to keep

hidden from parents and can have the effect of generating similar parental feelings toward their child. These reactions are often the consequences of insecurity the professional feels. For example, the professional imagines how it would be to be in the parents' situation and concludes that it would be difficult, if not impossible. He then communicates his feelings of hopelessness to the parents.

As a result of the multiple disabilities a child may have and the difficulty the family experiences in dealing with the situation, the professional may truly feel helpless. A professional can recognize his or her own feelings and discuss the situation (both the parents' circumstances and his feelings in working with the parents) with a respected colleague. Another possibility, which requires much tact and sensitivity, is a referral to another professional who is in a position to be more helpful.

Professionals are just as liable to feelings of denial as are parents. For example, because of personal feelings some professionals are unwilling or unable to recognize and acknowledge children's difficulties. This can leave the parents uncertain, more anxious, and unwittingly contributes to parental denial.

In some circumstances, especially when a difficult birth has occurred, a professional (e.g., an obstetrician) may feel that he has contributed to the child's problem. Such feelings of guilt may, in some subtle ways, interfere with productive parent-professional relationships.

For many of the reasons we have discussed, some professionals consider parents more of a nuisance than a resource. Parents are seen as persons who have lost their objectivity and who therefore possess distorted perceptions of their circumstances and their child. These professionals believe that since they are specially trained and are being paid for their expertise, only they can give profound, expert opinions. Although parents ordinarily have high expectations from service providers, this expectation has some negative consequences when professionals are reluctant to consider the opinions and perceptions of parents worthwhile.

When considering a particular family situation, often the most useful vantage point is that of the parent. It would be extremely beneficial if professionals would value the parents' perspective about a particular child and family. It is necessary for the professional to view parental perceptions as adding to the information they already have, instead of considering them contradictory. Professionals who base their evaluations on the information received from other professionals, their own observations, the child, *and the parents* are in the strongest position to be helpful.

Professional Training Needs

Professional training programs generally ignore the possibility that those they educate may be only minimally effective; professional training does not make the professional immune to stereotypic thinking. In fact, a major contributor to stereotypic/prejudicial thinking is the professional literature, especially the early literature related to disabled children and their parents. As an illustration, mentally retarded children were commonly referred to as defective and both children and their parents were, and to some extent continue to be, characterized by their deficiencies. Little regard was given to their strengths as individual human beings. Nor does professional training make professionals immune to the stresses we have discussed earlier in this article.

One way to deal with these problems is to recognize and admit to them. Without self-awareness little change in attitude can occur. Enlightened professional programs can include seminars, workshops, and other small group experiences designed to explore the notion of stereotypes as well as examine the specific prejudices held by the participants of these educational experiences. Small discussion groups where one can safely talk about stereotypes tend to be useful. Also, interaction with disabled children and adults and their families can help to reduce stereotypes.

The professional issues we have discussed here are just part of the problems that occur in this phase of designing new ways to work together. Just as we have made progress in getting parents and professionals to work together, we remain optimistic that these barriers to effective communication can be overcome. ■

In any event, a professional conclusion that turmoil means the family is emotionally unstable reflects a jaundiced and negative view of families who happen to have a child with a disability.

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IEP Development and Implementation: Systematic Parent-Teacher Collaboration

MARY D'ZAMKO
LYNNE RAISER

■ Special educators have long known that the one key to successful remediation is the active involvement of parents in a child's education. Public Law 94-142 reflects this important concern by including the parent as an essential member of the individualized education program (IEP) team. Although most would applaud the intent of P.L. 94-142 to encourage cooperative responsibility between the school and the home, few practical ideas have emerged to help special educators define the parent's role in IEP development and assure active participation on the team. It is commendable policy for parents to be invited to the child's education planning meeting, but how can they be included as more than vitally interested observers at the IEP conference?

The proposed model suggests a systematic way to involve parents as active diagnostic-prescriptive home teachers. From the time of initial referral parents can be included as essential team members, observing changes in learning behavior and extending the learning begun by the teacher at school.

Many studies have been conducted with preschool and school aged pupils that demonstrate academic gains result from parental instruction. Perry (1978) found that direct parent involvement in a structured home teaching program resulted in achievement gains for fourth, fifth, and sixth grade pupils. Wise (1972) found that by using a parent or older sibling as a "home instructor" low income remedial students made significant gains in perceptual learning when compared to a nonparticipating control group. She suggested that parents can be trained to teach their own children if the skills to be taught are stated in behavioral terms. Della-Piana (1966) found that oral reading accuracy and comprehension improved with the use of parents trained as home teachers.

Although some researchers have questioned the lasting effect of the home environment on learning (Durkin, 1974; Miller, 1969), there is extensive research to support the fact that academic gains can be achieved through parent involvement. The Coleman Report (1966) found that pupil achievement is strongly related to family background. Mosteller and Moynihan (1972), in a reanalysis of pupil achievement data from several large Harvard studies, confirmed Coleman's findings. In 1975 Coleman analyzed achievement test data collected from children aged 10 to 14 from six countries, including the United States, and concluded that home variables have at least as much impact upon pupil achievement as do school variables.

Guthrie (1977) studied 10 years of research on the Follow Through compensatory education projects and found that the three which had the most impact on pupil achievement had a strong parent involvement component. One of the projects, The Florida Parent Education Follow Through Program, described five parent involvement strategies which involved the parent as (a) audience, (b) decision maker, (c) volunteer, (d) paid employee, and (e) home teacher (Gordon & Breivogel, 1976). Goodson and Hess (1975), in their extensive review of parent programs, interpreted their followup data to suggest that there are lasting effects when parents are involved in teaching their own children.

While special education teachers have traditionally recognized the value of the active involvement of parents in a child's education, parents, too, often express a willingness to become involved. A recent survey of public school parents in Jacksonville, Florida, found a large percent wanted their children to have more homework (*Florida Times-Union*, 1979).

THE PARENT-TEACHER COLLABORATION MODEL

Parents who want to help their child at home need more than the suggestion, "Read more to him" or "Go over her spelling words with her each week." The IEP meetings offer a structured, formal time in which parents can have input into developing of the annual educational goals for their child. If parents are to be involved in IEP meetings, why not involve them in the diagnostic and prescriptive processes?

Stage 1: Pre-IEP Development

At the time of the initial staffing, the special education team member can provide a list of questions to the parents to guide their observation of the child during the intervening time between eligibility staffing and the IEP meeting. These questions or behavioral objectives can be derived from an informal assessment instrument such as the *Van Nagel Diagnostic Series*. Examples of the questions follow.

1. Does the student have difficulty saying the sound of the initial consonant in words such as the *r* in Rice Krispies?

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2. Does the student have difficulty identifying the final consonant in words such as the *d* sound in Kool-Aid?
3. Does the student have difficulty recognizing the short vowel sounds in words such as the *a* in Campbell's Soup?
4. Does the student have difficulty blending two initial consonants in words such as the *fr* sound in Froot Loops?
5. Does the student have difficulty blending consonants and vowels in words such as *tid* in Tide?
6. Does the student have difficulty recognizing words that show possession such as Pringle's?
7. Does the student have difficulty recognizing compound words such as *good* and *bar* in Mr. Goodbar?
8. Does the student have difficulty applying the double vowel generalization such as the *ea* in Shredded Wheat?
9. Does the student have difficulty selecting details from a paragraph such as finding the color of an item from a catalog description?
10. Does the student have difficulty stating the main idea such as reading the *TV Guide* and telling what a show was about?
11. Does the student have difficulty inferring what might happen in a newspaper article if it is not stated?

Stage 2: The IEP Conference

Following the home observations of the activities, the parent will now be prepared to become an active participant during the meeting when the IEP is developed. For example, the parent may have noticed that the child recognizes several letters of the alphabet by name or can add one digit numbers

TABLE 1
Home Activities to Extend and Reinforce IEP Skills

Skill	Activity	Item
Form constancy	Child will find the word "soup" as many times as he can.	Campbell's Soup label
Initial blends	Child will find as many initial blends as he can.	Pringle's Potato Chip can
Long vowel generalization	Child will find and say as many long vowel words as he can.	Tide box
Compound words	Child will find as many compound words as he can.	Mr. Goodbar
Syllabication	Child will divide the following words into syllables: artificial, flavor, vitamin, directions, contents, information.	Kool-Aid
Plural nouns	Child will find as many plural words as he can.	Nabisco Shredded Wheat
Vocabulary	Child will find the following words and tell what they mean: essential, natural, nutrition, fortified, analysis.	Froot Loops
Finding facts	Child will recall facts from "Marshmallow Treats" recipe.	Rice Krispies
Comprehension	Child will compare 4 sets of directions and tell how they are different.	Mug-O-Lunch

together in his or her head, although not on paper. When the IEP is written the teacher and parent can collaborate on their findings related to the child's academic needs. The teacher can encourage the parent to continue to make observations of the child's learning behavior, guided by the list of questions or objectives the teacher has provided.

Stage 3: IEP Implementation

As the long term goals and short term objectives are identified, the parent and teacher move into the next stage of the model. The parent can be given a copy of the IEP to use concurrently as the objectives are taught in the classroom. The parent can implement the IEP in an informal manner in the home environment. The teacher should emphasize to the parent that the suggestions are not time consuming and are meant to extend school learning through home activities. The learning activities are intended to complement and reinforce school learning through the use of readily available materials found in any home. The materials and activities should appeal to children and parents because of the relevance and incidental nature of the learning.

Recognizing that opportunities for parent-teacher communication are often minimal, this model can be conducted by using periodic conferences or phone calls. Once the teacher and the parent are engaged in the home learning system, communication should evolve naturally.

Table 1 illustrates ways in which the parent can extend and reinforce the skills specified in the IEP. Each is related to items commonly found in the home.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Examples have been suggested of reading skills on different levels. However, this technique is applicable to any school subject. After the parent becomes familiar with the system, the ideas for activities should become self generating. The parent should soon discover that each label and item in the home environment can serve as a multipurpose learning aid to extend and reinforce many subject areas.

The model that has been presented offers a systematic approach to involving parents in the development and implementation of the IEP. The model requires minimal time and effort on the part of both parent and teacher. There is no cost to the parent and little training is required. This approach facilitates collaboration between teacher and parent to ensure a concerted effort to meet the pupil's specific academic needs.

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ON BEING THE PARENT OF A HANDICAPPED CHILD

Many of the basic problems with which parents of handicapped children have to deal come directly from society. Such problems originate in society's perpetration of certain myths or frauds, to put it bluntly. We are especially susceptible to these myths as we are growing up. One myth encouraged by the romance magazines that teenagers read is that marriage is "eternal bliss". Another more pertinent myth is that out of this eternal blissful union will come children who are both physically and mentally beautiful and perfect. Therefore, the parents of a handicapped child have not lived up to the ideal and have produced an imperfect replica of themselves. This may cause much unconscious, if not conscious, guilt, as well as feelings of inferiority. At the same time, if parents are unfortunate enough to have a handicapped child (which society says subtly they are not supposed to do), society then hypocritically says they must be superparents. They must supply enormous additional amount of care, love, and attention to their child. They must do this, additionally, on a 24-hour-a-day, 365-days-a-year basis; otherwise they are superbad.

As a professional evaluating a child's progress, I can be the most patient, empathetic person on earth for half an hour. I can look critically at the impatient, harried parent. Unfortunately many professionals encountered by parents of handicapped children do not take the 24-hours, 365-days-a-year responsibilities of parents into account in their evaluation of the parent.

Parents of handicapped children must realize that fleeting moments of resentment and rejection of the burdens presented by a handicapped child are natural and are not indicative that they are bad parents. They need to seek help in solving their practical day-to-day problems. The best help can be found in interaction with parents who have experienced and solved such problems. Even though every family's situation is unique and what works for one family may not work for another, having someone with common problems with whom to interact is in itself therapeutic.

In the back of parents' minds, then, is a vague awareness that society is looking over their shoulders and judging if they are carrying out their prescribed duties, giving much love, attention, and devotion, not missing any treatment appointments, providing the best available care, etc. This is a "goldfish bowl" type of existence which eventually takes its toll in energy, strength and courage.

Parents must realize also that only by banding together can they bring about the changes in society which are needed. Legislators and other government leaders listen to groups when they might not listen to individuals. Therefore, in order to have their voices heard, parents of the handicapped must unite and seek common goals for their children's welfare.

This article is part of an address given by Bobby G. Greer, Associate Professor of Special Education and Rehabilitation at Memphis State University. He is handicapped himself, and is the father of a handicapped baby girl.

PARENT EDUCATION PROGRAMS AND RESOURCES

Accept: Parent Study Groups (Parents of K-6)
Jane Nielson
Elk Grove School District
Sacramento, CA
(916) 383-1562

Adult Education
Kim Rhodes
Burbank Unified School District
338 N. Buena Vista Ave.
Burbank, CA 91505
(213) 845-7237

Adolescent Workshops (Parents of adolescents)
Essence Publications
168 Woodbridge Ave.
Highland Park, NJ 08904

California Task Force on Positive Parenting
John Vasconcellos
State of California Department of Education
721 Capitol Mall
Sacramento, CA 95814

Curriculum for Parenthood Education
Phyllis Marcus
333 Main Street
Redwood City, CA 94063
(415) 364-5600 ext.2560

Education for Parenthood and Resources
W. Stanley Kruger (Parent/Early Childhood & Special Programs Staff)
U. S. Department of Education
7tj and D Streets S. W.
Washington, D. C. 20202

Exploring Childhood (Could be used for H.S. students and adults)
EDC School and Society Programs
55 Chapel Street
Newton, Massachusetts 02160

Education Development Center
School and Society Program
55 Chapel Street
Newton, Massachusetts 02160

Footsteps (Parents of 0-6)
Developed by a consortium of:

1. Applied Management Sciences, Inc.
   Silver Springs, MD
2. Educational Film Center
   Springfield, VA
3. Institute for Child Study
   University of Maryland
   College Park, MD

University Park Press, Publisher
233 East Redwood Street
Baltimore, MD 21202

FEED-Facilitative Environments Encouraging Development (for H.S. students)
901 Buena Vista, S. E.
Albuquerque, NM 87106
(505) 247-9837

Focus on Parenting (20 skills, video and guide)

Guide - S.D.U.S.D. - Materials Development
4100 Normal
San Diego, CA 92103 ($20.14)

Video - Bert Edwards
County Department of Education
6401 Linda Vista
(714) 292-3704

Home and School Institute
Dorothy Rich
Trinity College
Washington, D. C.

1. Special Needs of the Modern Family
2. Basic Reading/Math Skills
3. School/Community
4. Special Population

Look At Me - Phil Donahue (7 videos, for parents of young children)
Pat Bugelas
WTTW
5500 No. St. Louis
Chicago, IL 60625
(312) 583-5000

March of Dimes - Starting a Healthy Family
1275 Mamaroneck Ave.
White Plains, NY 10605

Office of Child Development - Mrs. Margary Remy
1500 5th Street
Sacramento, CA
(916) 323-1310

Voc. Ed. Unit
State Department of Education
1 Bunker Hill Building
601 W. 5th, Suite 1010
Los Angeles, CA 90017
(213) 620-3740

PPTP - Parent Partnership Training Program (parents of severely handicapped)
Author: Mary H. Moore, Published by Walker Education Book Corp.
720 Fifth Ave., New York, NY 10019

1. Introductory Guild
2. Parent's Manual
3. Basic Communications Skills: Classifications and Concepts
4. Developing Social Acceptability
5. Developing Responsible Sexuality
6. Work Skills: Light Housekeeping and In-home Assistance
7. Work Skills: Heavy-duty Cleaning, Yards and Grounds Care
8. Skills of Daily Living: Towards Independence

Parenthood Education Resource Center (7 states - mandated parent education)
120 E. 10th Street
Topeka, Kansas 66612

Parenting (College-level course)
Northern California Learning Consortium
12345 Elmonte Road
Los Altos Hills, CA 94022 ($200.08)
948-8590

Parent Readiness Education Project
Redford Union School District
18499 Beech Daly Road
Redford Township
Detroit, Michigan 48240

Parent TECH Project (Parents of special education)
Washington School
825 Taylor Avenue
Alameda, CA 94501
(415) 522-4836

Positive Parenting
Family Communication Skills Center
350 Sharon Park Drive
Suite A23
Menlo Park, CA 94025

Resources for Infant Educators
1550 Murray Circle
Los Angeles, CA 90026

SDUSD "Parent Education Resource Guide"
San Diego Unified City Schools
4100 Normal Street
San Diego, CA 92103
(Stock No. 41-P-0310)

School Age Parenting and Infant Development Program
Frank Powell
California State Department of Education
721 Capitol Mall
Sacramento, CA 95814
(916) 323-1310

"STEPS" To Independent Living (Parents of severely handicapped)
Authors: Bruce Baker, Alan Brightman, Stephen Hinshaw, published by Research Press, 2612 No. Mattis Ave., Champaign, IL 61820

1. Early Self-Help skills
2. Intermediate Self-Help Skills
3. Advanced Self-Help Skills
4. Toilet Training
5. Speech & Language Level 1 and 2
6. Behavior Problems

Strategies for Effective Parent/Teacher Interaction (Teacher Trainers)
Institute for Parent Involvement
University of New Mexico
1700 Pennsylvania, N. E.
Albuquerque, NY 87110 ($90.08)

Special Education Parent Facilitator Program (Parents of handicapped children)
San Diego Unified School District
4050 Appleton
San Diego, CA 92117
(714) 483-1921

Working Together for Quality Education (Parents of handicapped children)
California Department of Education
Office of Special Education
721 Capitol Mall
Sacramento, CA

Prepared by Ann Langstaff Pansanella, California Regional Resource Center, School of Education, University of Southern California

INSTRUCTION

INSTRUCTION

TIME	CONTENT	ACTIVITY	MEDIA	HANDOUTS
30 min.	Introduce instructional goals content Provide overview of assessment		Film - "Find the One That's Different" (15 min.) Available from Resource Service Center	Find your modality strengths pp. 121-122
	Discuss learning styles and modalities	Find your modality strengths pp. 121-122		
		What modality is your classroom? pp. 123-124		
	Additional materials on adapting curricular materials in Resource Specialist Vol. III.		Content Area Instruction OH 30 & 31	

THE INSTRUCTIONAL FUNCTION

Instructional competencies are already satisfied through the possession of a Basic Teaching Credential and/or a Special Education Credential.

INSTRUCTIONAL GOALS OF SPECIAL EDUCATION

The major instructional goals of special education are similar to those of general education. They are:

- Communication skills - to assist pupils in acquiring and using, to the extent of their capacity, the basic communication skills which will benefit the individual and society.
- Information - to assist pupils in learning how to obtain and use information.
- Physical development - to assist pupils in developing physically to the extent of their abilities.
- Personal values - to assist pupils in reaching and maintaining their mental and emotional potential and to establish acceptable moral and ethical standards.
- Occupational preparation - to assist pupils in preparing for careers, ranging from working at home to full-time employment.
- Problem solving - to assist pupils in solving problems inherent to living in a complex and changing world.
- Social values - to assist the total education community in accepting the responsibility for preparing itself for maximum acceptance of children with a wider range of individual differences than may have been present during the past few years. The result will be that normal pupils will have greater understanding of individual differences and all persons will be better prepared to live in a world of infinite variety.
- Development of intellectual potential - to assist and promote the intellectual development of all exceptional individuals.

APPROPRIATE ASSESSMENT: NON-BIASED

Bias is defined in the Webster's New World Dictionary as "a mental leaning or inclination; partiality; prejudice; bent". Non-biased assessment addresses the issue of how to minimize the effect of bias in assessment of children. The aspect of bias that makes it so difficult to deal with is that it is not intentional. Those who are responsible for conducting assessments are often unaware of the different biases which may be operating and significantly influencing program and placement decisions for each individual child.

Historically, public education has been the basic responsibility of parents, state and local public school systems. Recently the federal government has been exercising increasing power over education. In the past decade significant federal and state court decisions affecting Special Education, and in particular assessment and placement, have served to heighten the bias issue. Districts must now consider issues such as appropriate testing in the primary language of the child and the use of alternatives to IQ testing in the placement decisions. PL 94-142 and SB 1870 require educational opportunities for all children, birth to 21, and mandate non-discriminatory assessment.

In the whole area of assessment and placement, we must try to minimize bias and strive for appropriate practices for each individual child. All those involved in the total assessment of the child can move in this direction by being sure factors such as the following are considered:

- Personal attitudes, expectations
- Language differences and deficits
- Cultural differences
- Adequate test instruments
- Appropriate use of tests
- Alternatives to formal tests
- Appropriate techniques and procedures

Professionals working together as a team (e.g., child study or multidisciplinary team) can make more appropriate educational decisions than any one person. Through working together, the team can help to ensure the best selection of assessment tools, the best use of assessment information. In addition, the team as a whole can function as the most effective means of controlling the identified sources of bias and of minimizing the effect of bias in the decision-making process. For assessment is not just using a collection of test instruments, however adequate they might be, but is a system of data gathering, problem solving, and decision-making done by people to meet the specific needs of an individual child.

DIAGNOSTIC FRAMEWORK

Auditory

1. Receptive Language: The comprehension of the spoken word, including concept and category formation, understanding of word meaning and understanding of grammatical changes and interrelationships.

2. Expressive Verbal Language: The child's expression of the spoken word, including ability to use vocabulary, to recall appropriate words for appropriate use, to make correct grammatical judgements, and to formulate words in an orderly sequence in order to express thoughts.

3. Auditory Discrimination: The perception of sounds or sound sequences as being alike to different. Example: flip/flop (d) - sun/sun (s).

4. Auditory Analysis: The ability to select a sound or sound sequence out as part of a whole, such as identifying first sounds or syllables. Example: /h/- hit.

5. Auditory Synthesis: The ability to take sounds or sound sequences and blend them together into a whole word. Example: /b/-/o/-/a/-/t/ = "boat".

6. Auditory Memory: This skill is actually divided into three parts: (a) Immediate - The immediate recall of a sequence of digits, words, or a sentence, no storage of the information is required. Example: phone numbers; (b) Recent - The storage and retrieval of newly learned information which, if not reinforced will be forgotten. Example: directions; (c) Remote - The storage and retrieval of information that has been overlearned through reinforcement; this information is available for retrieval at any time. Example: Songs and stories.

Visual

1. Nonverbal Meaningful Language: The comprehension of pictures, of sequences of events in everyday life, of concepts such as cause and effect, of gestures and facial expressions, body language, and of social interactions. Much in this area forms the basis for development of verbal language.

2. Visual Discrimination: The perception of forms or letters as being alike or different.

3. Visual Analysis: The ability to see the parts within a whole.

4. Visual Analysis-Synthesis: The ability to see the interrelationships of parts to whole such as required in puzzle solving.

5. Visual Memory: This skill is also divided into three: (a) Immediate - The immediate recall of a sequence of digits, words, or designs, no storage of information is required. Example: Name of a product flashed

on T.V.; (b) Recent - The storage and retrieval of newly learned information which, if not reinforced, will be forgotten. Example: Location of where car is parked; (c) Remote - The storage and retrieval of information that has been overlearned through reinforcement. Example: Faces of family members; this information is available for retrieval at any time.

Sensori-Motor

1. Gross Motor Coordination: The ability to coordinate large body movements for running, walking, throwing, etc.

2. Fine Motor Coordination: The ability to coordinate fine body movements such as hand movements for writing, building, drawing or to coordinate the speech musculature.

3. Praxis: The ability to initiate and sequence movements according to some kind of command; ability to do this may vary with the kind of command. Command may be picture, imitation, verbal or an object. Example: Hop on one foot.

4. Sensori-Motor Memory: This skill is also divided into three: (a) Immediate - Recall of a sequence or movements, no storage of information is required. Example: Imitate a gesture; (b) Recent - Storage and retrieval of motor patterns which if not reinforced will be forgotten. Example: Practicing a tennis stroke; (c) Remote - Storage and retrieval of motor patterns that have been overlearned through reinforcement. Example: Proficiency at any sport. This information is available for retrieval at any time.

Spatial Organization

(In the literature, spatial learning is seen as a result of interrelationships of visual and sensori-motor skills.)

1. Interpersonal Space: The ability to make correct judgements about one's own body space. This would include body part identification, right-left orientation, and ability to dress oneself.

2. Extrapersonal Space: The ability to correctly make judgements about the space that exists outside of one's own body; this would include letter orientation, ability to move adequately through space without making erroneous judgements about distance, and the ability to construct designs or simple patterns.

Temporal

1. The ability of understanding a sequence over time. This area includes the ability to duplicate rhythm patterns, to understand time concepts, and to understand story plots.

Social and Planning Skills

1. Ability to initiate, inhibit, sequence activities, to attend, to shift attention, to scan visually and to set goals and plan for reaching goals.

2. Social adjustment in terms of self-concept, ability to relate to peers and adults, social acceptability of behavior.

Academic Skills and Achievement

1. Reading skills and achievement.

2. Spelling skills and achievement.

3. Writing skills.

4. Written language skills and achievement.

5. Arithmetic skills and achievement.

WHAT IS YOUR MODALITY?

As someone who also has a modality strength, you should be aware of that strength and how to capitalize on it. This section deals with recognizing your modality strength and how it might be evidenced in the classroom. Remember that not every child in the classroom will also show that strength. So, if a child fails to grasp a lesson, your follow-up instruction should be directed toward that child's modality strength.

FIND YOUR MODALITY STRENGTHS

Listed below are ten incomplete sentences and three ways of completing each sentence. Check the statement that is most typical of you. Then count the number of checks in each column. This will give you a rough idea of the relative strength of each of your modalities.

1. My emotions can often be interpreted by:	( ) Facial expressions	( ) Voice quality	( ) General body tone
2. I keep up with current events by:	( ) Reading the newspaper thoroughly when I have time	( ) Listening to the radio or watching television news	( ) Quickly reading the paper or spending a few minutes watching television news
3. If I have business to conduct with another person, I prefer:	( ) Face-to-face meetings instead of writing letters	( ) The telephone, since it saves time	( ) Conversing while walking, jogging, or doing something else physical
4. When I'm angry, I usually:	( ) Clam up and give others the "silent treatment"	( ) Am quick to let others know why I'm angry	( ) Clench my fists, grasp something tightly or storm off
5. When driving, I:	( ) Frequently check the rear view mirrors and watch the road carefully	( ) Turn on the radio as soon as I enter the car	( ) Can't get comfortable in the seat and continually shift position
6. I consider myself:	( ) A neat dresser	( ) A sensible dresser	( ) A comfortable dresser
7. At a meeting, I:	( ) Come prepared with notes and displays	( ) Enjoy discussing issues and hearing other points of view	( ) Would rather be somewhere else and so spend my time doodling
8. In my spare time, I would rather:	( ) Watch television, go to a movie, attend the theatre, or read	( ) Listen to the radio or records, attend a concert, or play an instrument	( ) Engage in a physical activity of some kind

9. The best approach to discipline is to:	( ) Isolate the child by separating him or her from the group	( ) Reason with the child and discuss the situation	( ) Use acceptable forms of corporal punishment
10. The most effective way of rewarding students is through:	( ) Positive comments written on their papers, stick ons, or posting good work for others to see	( ) Oral praise to the student and to the rest of the class	( ) A pat on the back, a hug, or some other appropriate physical action

Total number of boxes checked: ___Visual ___Auditory ___Kinesthetic

Source Unknown

WHAT MODALITY IS YOUR CLASSROOM?

What follows are descriptions of classrooms organized by an auditory learner, a kinesthetic learner, and a visual learner. Perhaps you might recognize yourself.

ROOM 113, THE AUDITORY CLASSROOM

The physical organization of this classroom is not immediately noticeable. Teacher and student desks are grouped together toward the front and center of the room. The chalkboard is at the opposite end of the room from the teacher's desk. There is one bulletin board in the room with a seasonal display on it. Two learning centers and a listening station are along the right side of the classroom. The listening station has a tape recorder and a record player. There are numerous tapes and records that provide instruction in basic skills, plus some records of sounds and music. Each of the learning centers has a cassette recorder in plain sight. The directions for each center are on cassette tapes.

Instruction in the classroom is mainly in the form of verbal discussions and lecture. Student talk is encouraged, and language lessons are accompanied by much discussion. Reading aloud is stressed. Reading instruction is built on phonics lessons. There are frequent "spelling bees". The children are encouraged to do verbal math problems and games, and respond orally to flash cards. There is a constant "buzz" of activity as students chat back and forth about their lessons and other activities.

ROOM 114, THE KINESTHETIC CLASSROOM

The physical organization in this classroom is not evident at all. The teacher's desk is out of the way in the far left corner. Items on the desk are in disarray; the desk is used mainly as readily accessible storage space for blocks, beads, jars, lids, scissors, and other assorted items. The student desks are lined up along the left wall with wide aisles between rows. The center of the room is open space. Beyond the open space is the chalkboard. The chalkboard gives much evidence of constant use. The open shelf-space contains many items such as blocks, counters, models, diagrams, and construction materials. The shelves are organized by activities: art supplies, books, models, student-made materials. Around the room are examples of student-made art pieces, including macrame, string art, and car and airplane models. The bulletin board is near the teacher's desk and contains geometric drawings by the children.

Much instruction takes place in the open space in the center of the room. Acting out a scene or activities occurs frequently. The teacher provides guidance for fine motor tasks. Instructional examples are to write spelling words, either at their desks or on the chalkboard. Unknown words are traced. Each child has crayons that are used frequently.

ROOM 115, THE VISUAL CLASSROOM

The physical organization in this classroom is immediately clear. The student desks are organized neatly in groups facing the teacher's desk. There are several bulletin boards about the room, each colorfully decorated and displaying material relating to some element of the current lessons.

There are three learning centers, identified by attention-getting artwork. The math center contains numerous graphs and pictures of math examples.

Numerous posters, signs, and pictures are displayed about the room. The letters of the alphabet are in orderly display along the wall opposite the windows.

Much instruction takes place from the teacher's desk. Workbooks, worksheets, and pictorial presentations dominate instruction. Reading is frequently done silently, stressing a sight-word approach. Configuration and pictures are used as clues for unlocking new words. Math drill is either from worksheets or flash cards. Spelling is practiced through the use of flash cards. Instructions to the children are often common, usually two dimensional, with line, color, and shape stressed. And slide films and movies are often viewed to provide instruction or as a special activity.

PRESCRIPTIVE TEACHING

In order to provide instruction in those specific curricular areas in which a resource room student needs help, it is necessary to employ prescriptive teaching. Prescriptive teaching begins with the diagnosis of strengths and weaknesses by means of both formal and informal testing procedures. Following the diagnosis, an educational prescription is written. This should include the exact goals expected of the student, the methods necessary to attain these goals, and the evaluation process that will determine that the goals have been met.

Prescriptive teaching aids the resource specialist in making the best use of the limited time available to him/her. The designing of a learning profile and prescription provides an organized means of describing the learner in terms of his educational performance and style. It allows the Resource Specialist and the Regular Classroom Teacher (RCT), along with other concerned personnel and the parents, to share a common pool of knowledge about the student and what will be expected of him.

Learning Profile

The Learning Profile describes a student's past and present performance--those tasks at which he has been successful and those at which he has not succeeded. It defines the level of academic, social, and psychomotor skills and specifies learning techniques and modes which have succeeded or failed.

Almost all of the data needed to complete the learning profile can be found in the information gained from the consultation forms and the diagnostic tests compiled by the Resource Specialist. Before attempting to write a prescription or profile, this information must be available.

First, the Resource Specialist must list the student's learning strengths and weaknesses. These are treated together for several reasons. While the student may exhibit a learning problem in a specific area such as reading or math, there always exists a foundation or strength on which to build. The success of prescriptive teaching lies in finding these foundation points. An example of a learning difficulty matched to its strength would be:

Learning difficulty:	The student cannot correctly work problems in addition with carrying.
Learning strength:	The student can work addition problems consisting of two three-digit addends.

The second reason for treating strengths and difficulties together is that, while sometimes difficult, the listing of a strength for each weakness helps both the Resource Specialist and the teacher to identify some positive aspects of the student. Pointing out these strengths can also aid the self-concept of the student. Many times he is all too aware of his own shortcomings and having someone point out his abilities is most beneficial.

Each of the three skill areas or domains -- the affective, the cognitive, and the psychomotor -- will be presented here. Common strengths and weaknesses will be mentioned, along with a brief description of the kinds of skills classified in each area. Learning techniques and modes will follow since the data included in this section spans all three skill areas or domains. Lastly, the Learning Profile will be diagrammed to show the relationships between the various areas.

Strengths and Difficulties in Affective Areas

The affective area includes the student's attitudes and behaviors in school. In searching for strengths and difficulties, the Resource Specialist observes the relationship of the student to his teacher(s) and peers. Does the student get along with one and not the other? Is he withdrawn or does he constantly act out? Is the student overly talkative or too quiet? What are the impressions that he has of himself? Is he confident? Looking at the learner in this way does not imply that these items are identified as problems. During consultation with the Resource Specialist, the regular teacher may mention behaviors or attitudes which he/she has noted in the student, and these should be considered as possible problem areas if so identified by the regular teacher. Another facet of the affective area is the ability to attend to a task. Appropriate questions include the length of time that the student pays attention during a class discussion, a silent reading assignment, a math worksheet, a movie. The Resource Specialist should also observe the manner in which the student's attention fluctuates as a key to the way in which he might learn best.

While there are some formal evaluative scales in the affective area, the Resource Specialist will most likely be presented with one or more problems identified by the teacher. It is then a matter of recording how often a behavior occurs, in order to develop a baseline for future improvements.

Strengths and Difficulties in the Cognitive Area

Cognitive skills can also be defined as academic skills. Difficulties encountered in the various subject areas of math, reading, phonics, social studies, science, etc. fall into this category. Most problems, however, seem to center around the areas of reading and language skills, and mathematics. Most students who experience difficulties in science or social studies are usually poor readers, which makes it difficult for them to use the assigned textbooks and to read the worksheets and tests that the teacher passes out. Some students have difficulty with the abstract concepts presented in science or social studies, and these needs must be considered. Other students excel in one particular subject area, while doing poorly in others.

Skill levels in math and the language arts are assessed by means of formal and informal tests. Future sessions on diagnostic testing will help the Resource Specialist construct tests which are appropriate for her/his particular situation. Formal tests and some informal tests are available from many leading publishers and the results of these, along with the results of the teacher-constructed tests, pinpoint the exact skill level of the student. For example, the intermediate student may know the consonants, but not the vowels. The junior high student may be able to multiply two two-digit numbers, but not if carrying is involved.

The age of the student is also of prime consideration. In addition to examining the skill level, the Resource Specialist must also consider if the student has progressed to the point in school where the focus should be on tutoring rather than on remediating, in order to help him succeed in this academic setting. This is especially important at the secondary level where students do not want to appear different than their peers, but at the same time, they have specific course requirements for graduation.

If the student is of junior or senior high school age, it is particularly important to survey his potential job and consumer skills. What are the skills needed to successfully hold a job, live in a home or apartment, take care of one's self? There is an entire continuum of skills including filling out forms and applications, using checking and savings accounts, cooking balanced meals, voting, maintaining an automobile, dealing with insurance companies, and being able to get help from various agencies when needed. There are also the related affective skills of getting along with one's employer and co-workers and using leisure time successfully.

When listing strengths and weaknesses, it is necessary, also, to justify how one established them. The Resource Specialist should list all formal and/or informal tests, word lists or inventories which were used.

Strengths and Difficulties in the Psychomotor Area

The psychomotor area includes the gross and fine motor skills. Gross motor skills include such tasks as walking, running, jumping, hopping, and catching a ball. Fine motor skills include using the scissors, writing with a pen or pencil, coloring, manipulating toys, and putting puzzles together. Most fine motor skills which are appropriate to the school setting are visual motor skills. They require the eye to work with the hand to cut along a line, copy a shape, or put a puzzle together correctly.

Problems in this area are usually obvious. The student who can't print or color and the student who has difficulty on the playground stands out to both the regular teacher and the Resource Specialist. There are many published tests which can be used to more closely examine the student who is demonstrating a problem in this area. Strengths and weaknesses found in the psychomotor area should be listed on the learning profile, along with the manner in which the skill was evaluated.

It should be noted that students may exhibit problems in one, two or all of the skill areas, but no skill area need be listed if no problem exists. The Resource Specialist may also match a learning strength from one area with a learning difficulty from another, as in the case of the student who has not yet learned to tell time (a cognitive skill), but whose parents have promised him a watch when he learns (an affective strength).

Learning Modes

Learning modes or styles are the particular ways in which one learns. Each person has his own best style or mode. Some remember a phone number by repeating it out loud; others must write it down and then look at it. The same thing is true of students. Some learn better in a one-to-one setting, others work well in small groups or in whole class activities.

Many students pick up a good portion of their learning from reading assignments. There are others, who for a variety of reasons, pick up more information by listening to a tape or a record, or watching a filmstrip, an overhead transparency, or a movie.

Is the student easily distracted by sounds, either inside the classroom or out, such as other groups in the hallway or traffic sounds? Visual distraction is also possible, exaggerated by such things as too many problems on a page or colorful, busy pictures.

How does the student approach problems or tasks -- in an organized or disorganized fashion? Does he look a task over before attempting it? Does he give up after a few quick tries, or stick to it until the task is complete?

The Resource Specialist must consult with the teacher in order to determine the particular styles or procedures which have been successful or unsuccessful in the past, and, therefore, which conditions and techniques should be employed or tried to insure the highest degree of success. The information, thus gained, would be placed on the Learning Profile under Learning Modes.

LEARNING PROFILE

	DIFFICULTIES	STRENGTHS	LEARNING MODES
AFFECTIVE and/or COGNITIVE and/or PSYCHOMOTOR			

This is the model of the Learning Profile. It includes the difficulties, strengths and learning modes of the student in the three skill areas of affective, cognitive, and psychomotor. To review, there should always be at least one strength for each difficulty. There may be a problem listed in a single area, in any two, or perhaps all three areas. Learning modes relate to all three areas. When this information is complete, the Resource Specialist then moves to the Learning Prescription, the actual plan to be used to assist the student.

Learning Prescription

Once the learning profile has been constructed, the process of prescription writing is greatly simplified. The Resource Specialist knows the precise skill level at which the student is functioning and the learning modes which have previously been successful or unsuccessful. It remains then to: 1) set educational goals for each of the identified difficulties, 2) set down specific techniques for accomplishing them, and 3) form evaluative processes for determining if they have been met. In the following section, goals, techniques, and evaluation will be discussed, and the prescription format will be illustrated.

Goals

Educational goals are chosen by the teacher and the Resource Specialist. Together, they decide the specific skills which the student needs in order to function at a higher level. The golas should be written using the data found under Strengths and Difficulties in the Learning Profile. For example, if a learning difficulty has been identified as the inability of a student to perform subtraction with regrouping, and the related learning strength was that he can subtract one three-digit number from another as long as regrouping was not required, the goal might be: "The student will subtract one two-digit number from another when regrouping is required."

This general goal can also be stated in terms of a performance objective, such as, "The student will, given a sheet of 20 subtraction problems involving regrouping, correctly answer 18 of the 20 within a half-hour". There are many formats for performance objectives in educational literature. There are, however, several criteria which are shared by most. They involve the identification of:

1. The learner
2. The specific task to be accomplished
3. The conditions for completion
4. The evaluation

Performance objectives should always be stated in positive terms:

NOT: Tom will not get out of his seat.

INSTEAD: Tom will stay at his desk during the seatwork period for ten minutes, raising his hand if he needs help.

They should be concrete and observable:

NOT: Ann will be able to do addition.

INSTEAD: Ann will complete 19 out of 20 addition problems, adding 2 double-digit addends without carrying.

They should be measurable:

NOT: Bob will improve one year in reading.

INSTEAD: Bob will identify 90% of the Dolch words when presented on flashcards, given 5 seconds in which to name each word.

By being specific in stating the objective, the teacher, the Resource Specialist, the student, and his parents can all know exactly what is expected of him. By stating the conditions under which the student will work and the manner in which he will be evaluated, each person concerned will know exactly when the student has achieved his goal.

Techniques

That area of the Learning Prescription label as Techniques reflects the knowledge gained in analyzing previous Learning Modes (as described under the

Learning Profile) and results in the selection of appropriate materials and modification of curriculum which are both discussed later in this chapter. Techniques from these area, specific math or reading programs employed, and behavioral programs designed for the student can be listed under this heading. In this way, those concerned with the student will know under what guidelines the Resource Specialist is working. Additionally, decisions as to where the student will perform some of his tasks will be made, and skills which will be dealt with in the Resource Room and in the regular class will be specified.

In selecting the techniques to be used with a particular student, the Resource Specialist must consider several questions.

1. Will this technique make the student less unique and more acceptable in the regular class?

2. Will this technique improve the regular teacher's perception of the student, helping to make her realize that with the properly chosen work the student will be both more successful and cooperative?

3. Does the technique reflect the student's strengths as well as his difficulties?

With these factors in mind, the selection of materials and techniques is greatly facilitated.

Evaluation

Diagnostic testing is an essential preface to the prescription writing process, and just as importantly, post-tests should be utilized to insure that the educational goals have been reached. Testing is used when the student enters the Resource Room, to identify those skills which the student does and does not possess. This evaluation can take the form of informal or formal diagnostic tests. These measures are used in the various academic areas to identify highly specific skills which the student needs. They can be purchased commercially, or they can be constructed by the Resource Specialist in order to match the texts and concepts of the particular situation in which she works.

Evaluation can include baselines, frequency counts, and charts for demonstrating gains in behavioral programs or those academic areas which are suitable for charting, such as the number of flashcards identified by the student or the number of math facts correctly answered in a given time period. A baseline is used before any technique is attempted. The teacher, social worker, or psychologist records the number of times a behavior occurs, the length of time the student performs a task, or the number of items correct. Then, during and after a technique has been implemented, the frequency continues to be recorded so that the teachers, the student, and others involved can see the progress that is made. Charts are a simple means of recording this data. Either the teacher or the student can fill in the data for a daily or weekly progress check.

Testing can be done by the Resource Specialist, the regular teacher, the psychologist or social worker, depending on the area being evaluated. Pre- and post-tests used to evaluate a student's progress must be equivalent.

That is, the post-test must be measuring the same exact skill or skills which were measured in the pre-test. Only in this way can the student's gain be clearly substantiated. Many commercially made diagnostic tests can be purchased in two forms, labeled as I and II or A and B. Two forms of the same test must be used so that the chance of a student recognizing the test items is diminished. In a teacher-made test, the syllables used for the student to identify vowel sounds can be changed so that different examples evaluated the same sounds. Reading passages of the same levels as the pre-test can be used to check improvement in reading comprehension.

The importance of proper evaluative techniques cannot be underestimated. The continuing evaluation of the student by charting or testing alerts the teacher to problems as they arise and allows changes to be made when necessary.

The Learning Prescription as it has been described is illustrated below:

LEARNING PRESCRIPTION

	GOALS	TECHNIQUES	EVALUATION
AFFECTIVE and/or COGNITIVE and/or PSYCHOMOTOR			

To summarize the information required for the chart, the Resource Specialist first defines an educational goal for each of the difficulties listed in the profile. The techniques for achieving these goals are then listed. Lastly, the methods used in evaluating the student's progress are recorded. These tests should be parallel forms of the pre-tests so that the most valid results can be obtained.

In summary, the prescription formula attempts to establish several objectives:

1. Problem Specificity

   The prescription process defines the problem in concrete, measurable terms so that all concerned with the student know what he is expected to accomplish.

2. Appropriate Curriculum

   The process allows the Resource Specialist to examine the student's curriculum and provide alternatives where necessary to insure the success of the student.

3. Learning Strengths

This format exposes the student's strengths, as well as his difficulties, so that positive traits can be built.

4. Skill levels

The prescription examines the hierarchy of skills in which the student is working to identify the exact point at which he should begin. In this way, too, the Resource Specialist knows which skills to require of the student next, so that skills are not taught in isolation, but as part of a continuum.

5. Learning Conditions

The environment in which the student is working is examined to see if there are factors which contribute to his learning problems.

6. Program Maintenance

The prescription allows for decisions to be made regarding where the student is to perform various tasks - the Resource Room, the regular class, or at home.

7. Prescription Revisions

The evaluation of the student's progress is the best indication of how well the program is working. If the student is not progressing, then the data in the profile whould be re-evaluated and changes in the program made.

CAREER AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

CONTENT	ACTIVITY	MEDIA	HANDOUTS
Present overview Present - "The Oregon Way" as basis for career education at elementary level* Discuss differences between Career and Vocation Education Discuss objectives and program development specific to audience *It is important that the audience understand that career education and vocational education are not limited to secondary-level instruction.		OH-32 Edwin Martin Statement OH-33 Career Education Overview OH-34 Differences between Career Education and Vocational Education Film - "Where's There's a Will, There's a Way" by California State Department of Education SERN Resource Service Ctr California State Dept of Education Personnel Development Unit 721 Capitol Mall Sacramento, CA 95814	What career education is and what career educatic is not

BY 1977 EVERY HANDICAPPED CHILD WHO LEAVES SCHOOL WILL HAVE HAD CAREER EDUCATIONAL TRAINING RELEVANT TO THE JOB MARKET, MEANINGFUL TO HIS CAREER ASPIRATION, AND REALISTIC TO HIS FULLEST POTENTIAL.

EDWIN MARTIN, BUREAU OF EDUCATION
FOR THE HANDICAPPED

OBJECTIVES OF CAREER EDUCATION FOR EXCEPTIONAL INDIVIDUALS

"By 1977 every handicapped child who leaves school will have had career educational training relevant to the job market, meaningful to his career aspiration, and realistic to his fullest potential."

Edwin Martin
Bureau of Education
for the Handicapped

Unfortunately, a large proportion of handicapped students are still not receiving the kind of training recommended and expected by Martin.

There is no doubt that handicapped individuals need career education and they need it immediately. Our educational system is failing these students even more drastically than those who are not handicapped.

The Council for Exceptional Children lists the following objectives of career education for exceptional individuals:

To help exceptional students develop realistic self-concepts, with esteem for themselves and others, as a basis for career decisions.

To provide exceptional students with appropriate career guidance, counseling and placement services utilizing counselors, teachers, parents and community resource personnel.

To provide the physical, psychological, and financial accommodations necessary to serve the career education needs of exceptional children.

To infuse career education concepts throughout all subject matter in the curricula of exceptional children in all educational settings from early childhood through post-secondary.

To provide the student with the opportunity to leave the school program with an entry level saleable skill.

To provide career awareness experiences which aim to acquaint the individual with a broad view of the nature of the world of work, including both unpaid and paid work.

To provide career exploration experiences which help individuals to consider occupations which coincide with their interests and aptitudes.

To provide exceptional individuals programs with occupational preparation opportunities for continuum of occupational choices covering the widest possible range of opportunities.

To help insure successful career adjustment of exceptional students through collaborative efforts of school and community.

GOAL STATEMENTS FOR CAREER EDUCATION

1. SELF AWARENESS

   Students will develop a positive attitude toward self and others, a sense of self-worth and dignity, and motivation to accomplish personal goals.

2. OCCUPATIONAL AWARENESS

   Students will develop a continuing awareness of occupational opportunities and relate these opportunities to personal aptitudes, interests, and abilities.

3. ATTITUDE DEVELOPMENT

   Students will develop a positive attitude toward work and appreciate the contribution of work to self-fulfillment.

4. EDUCATIONAL AWARENESS

   Students will recognize that educational experiences are a part of personal career development.

5. ECONOMIC AWARENESS

   Students will understand the relationship of productive work and the individual's well-being.

6. CONSUMER COMPETENCIES

   Students will achieve sufficient economic understanding and consumer competency to make wise decisions in the use of their resources.

7. CAREER ORIENTATION

   Students will explore career possibilities to increase awareness and understanding of the occupational options available to them.

8. CAREER PLANNING AND DECISION-MAKING

   Students will participate in a career development process that will assist them in making meaningful occupational decisions.

9. CAREER EXPLORATION

   Students will participate in a program of career exploration that contributes to the individual's search for occupational and personal satisfaction.

10. CAREER PREPARATION

Students will acquire marketable skills leading to employment in a selected occupational cluster.

Developed by the California State Department of Education.

DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES OF CAREER EDUCATION

EACH STAGE OF CAREER DEVELOPMENT ENCOMPASSES OBJECTIVES. CAREER EDUCATION FOR THE L. D. STUDENT SHOULD PROVIDE EXPERIENCES IN THE FOUR STAGES OF SEQUENTIAL CAREER GROWTH: AWARENESS, PREPARATION, EXPLORATION, AND PARTICIPATION.

AWARENESS

DURING THE PRIMARY LEVELS, EMPLOYMENT SHOULD BE VIEWED AS AN ESSENTIAL PART OF THE CHILD'S LIFE. HE/SHE SHOULD BECOME AWARE OF THE WIDE VARIETY OF OCCUPATIONS IN THE WORLD OF WORK AROUND HIM/HER. THE MASTERY OF THE CONTENT OF THE OBJECTIVES IN THE AWARENESS STAGE IS GAINED BY PROVIDING THE CHILD WITH SPECIFIC ACTIVITIES HE/SHE CAN DIRECTLY BE INVOLVED IN THROUGH ACTION AND MANIPULATION.

NEAR THE END OF THE AWARENESS STAGE, THE CHILD WILL BEGIN TO USE THE KNOWLEDGE GAINED ABOUT THE WORLD OF WORK IN FIRST HAND LEARNING EXPERIENCES AND BEGIN TO GROUP AND CATEGORIZE THESE EXPERIENCES IN ORDER TO APPLY THE SAME KNOWLEDGE AND CONCEPTS TO A VARIETY OF SITUATIONS.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

1. To understand self in terms of his/her own daily activities, characteristics and attributes, and recognize uniqueness of own self.
2. To understand the difference between work and play.
3. To relate present experiences to future jobs.
4. To familiarize self with jobs held by his/her immediate family, his/her extended family, the school, the neighborhood, and the community.
5. To begin study of career clusters.
6. To identify own interests and relate them to various work activities.
7. To understand that participation in work is a productive way of life.
8. To increase clarification of values and acceptance of themselves.
9. To apply the decision-making process by participating in some hypothetical situations, thereby discovering factors that influence decisions and considering the consequences of the decisions made.

EXPLORATION

IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM, THE CHILD BEGINS TO FORMULATE SOME DECISIONS ABOUT CAREER CHOICES; TO EXAMINE THE REASONS FOR WORKING; TO EXPLORE CERTAIN JOBS IN ORDER TO GAIN INFORMATION ABOUT THEIR QUALIFICATIONS AND RESPONSIBILITIES; AND TO EXAMINE HIS/HER OWN STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS. AN INVESTIGATION OF MANY OCCUPATIONAL AREAS AT THIS STAGE OF DEVELOPMENT

ENHANCES THE INDIVIDUAL'S KNOWLEDGE ABOUT CAREER DECISIONS. THE STUDENT EXPLORES, IN DEPTH, THE VARIOUS JOBS THAT COMPRISE A CAREER CLUSTER, EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE JOBS - SIMPLEST TO COMPLEX - AND HOW HE/SHE VIEWS THEM IN COMPARISON TO HIS/HER OWN CAREER CHOICE.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

1. To re-enter the mainstream of life through active participation as a productive member in the world of work by broadening the student's comprehension of the world and developing knowledge of different occupations, the reasons people work, and the life styles of different workers.

2. To see the importance of performing a job to the best of one's ability which, in turn, will provide the child with a feeling of self-esteem and better self-understanding.

3. To explore the kinds of specific jobs and related fields of work available in terms of his/her abilities and interests using a job analysis approach.

4. To explore the process of producing income by participating in the economic system.

5. To accept the responsibility for career planning.

PREPARATION

IN THE BEGINNING YEARS OF THE HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM, AN OPPORTUNITY MUST BE PROVIDED TO ENGAGE IN AN INDEPTH STUDY OF ONE OR MORE OCCUPATIONS AND TO DEVELOP SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS WITHIN A FAMILY, WORK, AND COMMUNITY SITUATION. THE PREPARATION STAGE MAY INCLUDE PREPARATION FOR COLLEGE TRAINING, FURTHER SPECIFIC SKILL TRAINING, OR DEVELOPMENT OF ENTRY LEVEL SKILLS SO THE STUDENT CAN PROCEED DIRECTLY FROM HIGH SCHOOL TO THE WORLD OF WORK. THE PREPARATION STAGE MUST INCLUDE ALL OPTIONS.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

1. To realize the dignity of work by developing an appreciation and respect for all types of jobs on all levels of work, recognizing that every job is important and has a social usefulness.

2. To develop competency in predicting consequences of the student's own behavior in areas concerned with effective social, personal, and occupational interaction with his environment and to accept responsibility for this behavior.

PARTICIPATION

THE LATTER YEARS OF HIGH SCHOOL CAN AFFORD THE L. D. STUDENT AN OPPORTUNITY TO BECOME EMPLOYED IN AN ON-CAMPUS JOB, IN AN APPRENTICESHIP FIELD EXPERIENCE, OR WITHIN THE COMMUNITY.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

1. To develop confidence in his/her ability to perform a variety of jobs and a positive regard for him/herself as a productive person by being exposed to a variety of occupational activities.

2. To recognize his interests, assets, and limitations, neither overestimating or underestimating his/her job abilities; to develop them accordingly; and to perform despite the limitations.

3. To develop the emotional ability to postpone gratifications for performing a job.

4. To develop vocational maturity in an area of interest and within actual capabilities.

5. To develop and clarify work attitudes and values.

6. To apply the decision-making process with knowledge and confidence.

AT EACH OF THESE DEVELOPMENTAL CAREER STAGES, THE STUDENT WILL NEED TO MEET AND COPE WITH INCREASINGLY DIFFICULT DEVELOPMENT TASKS ASSOCIATED WITH EACH. THE EVOLVEMENT THROUGH ALL THESE AND THE COMPLETION OF VARIOUS CAREER STAGES WILL EVENTUALLY LEAD TO OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE.

ACTIVITIES FOR CAREER EDUCATION FOR THE LD CHILD

ELEMENTARY LEVEL

1. Collage - The collage activity may be used with small groups or as an individual activity. Assign a job, work theme, or social relationship to each group. The students need to be given time to find pictures in magazines or newspapers exemplifying the career or theme assigned. The completed collages should also be used to stimulate discussions related to the pictorial meanings and how these pictures exemplify the theme or job. Hang a card from each collage indicating the career or theme pictured. These collages are created using scissors, magazines, and glue mounted on tagboard. Another alternative theme could be a "People Work/ People Play" college.

2. "Come-As-What-You-Want-To-Be-Party" - Each child can plan his/her costume in an original manner. Have the child describe the duties of his/ her selected job and ask him/her to illustrate these duties through pantomime or with drawings or pictures cut from magazines.

3. Pantomime - Have students explain what they want to be by pantomime while others try to guess the job.

4. Related Game - Have matched cards which are related in some way to the same career (uniform-tools) (product-person). Deal out half of each related set to students. "Caller" holds up half of the related set and the student with the "match-up" puts them together.

5. Job Dictionary - Students can make a dictionary showing a variety of job titles from A to Z.

6. "What Do I Do Each Day?" Booklet - Children can list activities, find pictures, and/or illustrate the activities done during a typical day. Later, the child can indicate if these are "Have-to-Do Activities" or "Choice Activities". Add a clock to each page of the booklet telling them when each activity is performed.

7. Murals - Draw murals depicting "When I Work, I Like to Work" and "When I Play, I Like to Play".

8. Class Chart - Develop a class chart to match classroom skills with a specific job (mastering of alphabetical order = file clerk). This could also be put in the form of a matching card game or a flannel board activity.

9. Coloring Book - Teachers can make ditto masters to produce a coloring book for primary levels showing worker, tools, and uniform associated with the job pictured.

10. Experience Chart Stories - Experience chart stories can be written about workers and the world of work.

11. Games - Games can be motivating to the student. They also provide repetition and practice yet avoid reading. Many games use a partner or team working together for a common purpose, thereby providing for a socializing environment and a way to promote cooperativeness. Popular Games - Adapt popular games to reflect careers. Play "Charades," "What's My Line?" and "Twenty Questions".

12. "Spelldown" - The teacher or one of the students can read a description of an occupation or describe the tools which are used in an occupation and the students are asked to identify the job on the basis of the information which has been presented.

13. Popular Stories - Turn stories into a career education theme, i. e., The Little Train That Could - Who runs the train? What workers are involved in the railroad business? How does the business world use trains?

14. Arts and Crafts Activities - Arts and crafts activities can be used to develop many objectives of the career education program: fine motor dexterity; following directions; seeing a task through to completion; following a step-by-step procedure; conserving materials; using a variety of tools and materials; timing; and maintaining an appropriately kept work station. All these act as prerequisites for the actual work study program at the high school level.

15. Notebooks - Other themes for notebooks to be made by individual students or small groups: "All About Me Books" (physical characteristics, likes, dislikes, etc.); "Parent Occupation Book"; "Notebook of Career Clusters".

16. Newspaper - Develop a newspaper where the students can list occupations they have discussed in class; write feature articles; note new developments in the field; compose editorials; create career cartoon strips; write want ads; and report the interviews with the resource people.

17. Letters - Assign students the task of writing letters to successful people in the community and nation asking them to tell about their job, why they selected it, and the qualities they think are necessary for success in the field. They might also be asked to tell what advice they would give to a young person who is interested in the field. The letters can be displayed in the school library. This may be a "paired project" so that a student with written expressive language problems could dictate the content to another student who could do the actual writing task.

18. Posters - Develop poster activities that picture jobs associated with seasons of the year and holidays.

19. Puzzles - Cut out or draw pictures of people performing their jobs; mount them on cardboard; laminate (if possible); and cut in a variety of pieces.

JUNIOR HIGH LEVEL

At the junior high school level, career education should still not be viewed as a subject to be taught, but as a process by which other parts of education become relevant and meaningful. Career education attempts to infuse the life-coping skills into the educational process, showing the student ways of dealing with the problems and challenges of living, changing, and growing. The process involves valuing, decision-making, confronting issues, experimenting, withdrawing and recessing, fantasizing, mediating, and even, to a degree, failing.

The junior high school program should continue to offer a career component, continuing the program initiated on the elementary level. Emphasis should be placed on relating school activities to later achievement. Also, during this school period, the students should understand that there are other viable alternatives to achievement other than a college degree.

At this level, the student's self-concept is determined to a large extent by how his/her needs are met. This self-concept is formed through the processes of exploration, differentiation, identification, role playing and reality testing.

Junior high school students need encouragement and help in associating with work situations and in expanding their understanding of the myriad ways in which persons earn their livings in the community.

The curriculum, here, begins to focus more specifically on vocational skills during the career education class. Career centers can be established for this purpose. Each center can develop an indepth study of a particular job. Lists of vocabulary terms pertinent to that job with appropriate matching pictures can be hung around the room. An assembly of tools with accompanying photographs and pictures showing their usage and charts showing the steps and processes involved in the manufacture of the product or in the performance of the service can also be displayed, as well as used in the study of the chosen career.

The class would study the career area, specific jobs that are included in this cluster, vocabulary, and usage of equipment. Knowledge of job responsibilities are acquired through actual practice. Students learn about the skills through: actual on-site visits to see the workers first-hand; visits by resource persons involved in the particular career; and filmstrips, films, written materials, cassettes.

For example, the career to be explored by Class A is beauty culture. The students have studied the career through the various techniques described above. They practice the job skills through using actual equipment and materials associated with the career. Other classes are invited to come to the "beauty culture" career center as consumers to partake of the "service".

Each class of LD students could develop a different career center. Some should offer services; others, products.

Other junior high school activities that can be used in the instruction of career education include:

1. Drawing cartoons to illustrate advantages and disadvantages to certain career interests.

2. Developing a "Class Work Force" to do jobs around the classroom and also general jobs in the school (decorate bulletin boards, refinish desks, build a greenhouse for science, make macrame holders for plants). Each student would make a contribution.

3. Tracing a certain product from its beginning to completion. A chart or wall mural could pictorially tell the story. Little written language is needed.

4. Playing "What's My Line?" with emphasis on categorizing. Students playing determine if the occupation is dealing with ideas, people, or things.

5. Acting out skits concerning what would happen if certain occupations did not exist.

6. Completing crossword puzzles using words that relate to specific jobs or the general world of work.

7. Developing examples with the students of people pyramids to illustrate interdependency. The figures could be drawn on blocks to graphically point out that when one person doesn't perform his/her important job (pull out a block) an end product is not completed (the pyramid "collapses").

8. Having teams of two to four students set up checking stations at classroom windows or on the school grounds at points where a street or highway is clearly visible. Students record and/or tally the kinds of businesses and industries indicated on passing trucks, vans, or buses. From such a "count", students can make frequency charts on various occupations, cluster "charts" or "trees" on listing, etc. Each team contributes to the class tally sheet which is placed on the bulletin board or written on the chalkboard.

9. Use pictorial representation in cartoon format of a situation found in a career, business, service in the community, or everyday living situation. Have spaces left by each person in the scene to allow students to write whatever is appropriate for the situation depicted.

SENIOR HIGH LEVEL

1. Provide students with activities that unify basic subject areas with career development concepts and skills to make academic instruction more relevant.

2. Provide guidance and counseling services which will assist the student in determining occupational choice.

3. Provide placement services for all students, upon termination of schooling, in a job, a post-secondary occupational training program, or a college program.

4. Provide students with an opportunity to conduct a job analysis of certain jobs they would like to investigate.

5. Complete a study of the general economic system by which goods and services are produced and distributed.

6. Provide a variety of group and individual work tasks to determine the interests, aptitudes, and abilities.

7. Provide opportunities for skill training on a job entry level in a variety of experiences such that gainful employment can be obtained in a variety of different kinds of jobs.

8. Provide for opportunities to engage in a wide variety of occupationally related and leisure time activities.

9. Develop the student's awareness of occupational areas in terms of work roles, related life styles, and potential satisfactions and dissatisfactions.

HAVE YOU EVER .....

1. Related supermarket checking and math?
2. Set up a school store for dispensing items?
3. Related painting with rollers to fiberglass work?
4. Divided a class into teams to accomplish a single project?
5. Borrowed an adding machine for class use?
6. Set up a "take apart" table with tools, clocks, old radios, etc.?
7. Inventoried parents' occupations and/or invited them to speak?
8. Made an art project on a "mass production" basis?
9. Let children weigh and measure and relate the activity to adult jobs?
10. Made a field trip where you looked more at people than at things?
11. Related recess time to "outside occupations"?
12. Set up a school newspaper with editors, proofreaders, writers, etc.?
13. Made a comic book to illustrate the job of a marine biologist or an electronic technician?
14. Related the tourist industry of a state or country to real jobs and people?
15. Identified "serving other people" as a group of occupations?
16. Visited a vocational school?
17. Asked mothers who hire baby sitters to visit class and discuss job requirements.
18. Had students role play service occupations at lunch time?
19. Toured a hospital or brought old X-rays to class?
20. Invited the school secretary, bus driver, custodian, cook, or principal to class to discuss their jobs?
21. Tried cardboard carpentry?
22. Had students draw floor plans?
23. Related a science activity to its counterpart in the work world?

24. Played "What's My Line"?

25. Elected a bike safety engineer and made vehicle safety inspections?

26. Computed the increase in cost from raw grain to a box of cereal?

27. Named class helpers after their adult counterparts in a given industry (supt., timekeeper, comptroller, foreman, leadman, etc.)?

28. Collected hats or tools of occupations and had students guess the job?

29. Constructed a measuring wheel?

30. Had students write or tell about "What I like to do in my free time....?

31. Related personal interests and hobbies to occupations?

32. Made a dictionary of canned or bulk goods and traced their points of origin?

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TRANSPARENCIES

AUTHORIZATIONS

THE CLEAR RESOURCE SPECIALIST CERTIFICATE OF COMPETENCE AUTHORIZES THE SPECIALIST TO:

(1) PROVIDE INSTRUCTION AND SERVICES FOR PUPILS WHOSE NEEDS HAVE BEEN IDENTIFIED IN AN INDIVIDUALIZED EDUCATION PROGRAM DEVELOPED BY THE INDIVIDUALIZED EDUCATION PROGRAM TEAM AND WHO ARE ASSIGNED TO REGULAR CLASSROOM TEACHERS FOR A MAJORITY OF THE SCHOOL DAY.

(2) PROVIDE INFORMATION AND ASSISTANCE TO INDIVIDUALS WITH EXCEPTIONAL NEEDS AND TO THEIR PARENTS.

(3) PROVIDE CONSULTATION, RESOURCE INFORMATION, AND MATERIAL REGARDING INDIVIDUALS WITH EXCEPTIONAL NEEDS TO THEIR PARENTS AND TO REGULAR STAFF MEMBERS.

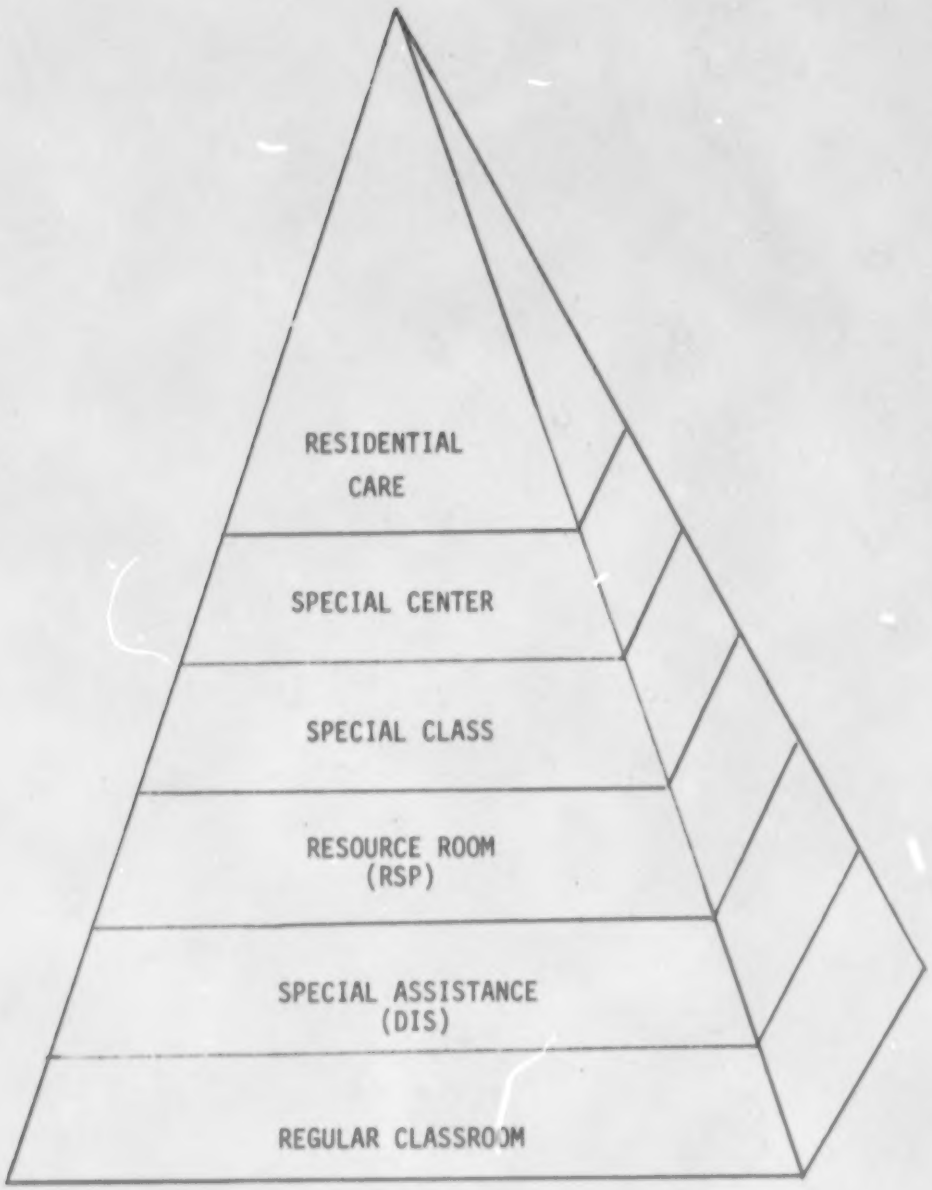
(4) COORDINATE SPECIAL EDUCATION SERVICES WITH THE REGULAR SCHOOL PROGRAMS FOR EACH INDIVIDUAL WITH EXCEPTIONAL NEEDS ENROLLED IN THE RESOURCE SPECIALIST PROGRAM.

(5) MONITOR PUPIL PROGRESS ON A REGULAR BASIS, PARTICIPATE IN THE REVIEW AND REVISION OF INDIVIDUALIZED EDUCATION PROGRAMS, AS APPROPRIATE, AND REFER PUPILS WHO DO NOT DEMONSTRATE APPROPRIATE PROGRESS TO THE INDIVIDUALIZED EDUCATION PROGRAM TEAM.

(6) EMPHASIZE, AT THE SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVEL, ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT, CAREER AND VOCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT, AND PREPARATION FOR ADULT LIFE.

FILMSTRIP - SB 1870

RANGE OF SERVICES



OH-2

THE SPIRIT OF SB 1870

THE INTENT IS . . .

. . . FREE APPROPRIATE PUBLIC EDUCATION

. . . EARLY EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

. . . INDIVIDUALIZED EDUCATION PROGRAM

. . . LOCAL PLANS AND CAC'S

. . . MAXIMUM INTERACTION

. . . TRANSFER OUT WHEN SERVICES NOT NEEDED

. . . AVOID UNNECESSARY USE OF LABELS

. . . NONBIASED ASSESSMENT AND PLACEMENT

. . . PROGRAMS COORDINATED WITH OTHER AGENCIES

. . . ACCESS TO PSYCHOLOGICAL AND HEALTH SERVICES

. . . CONTINUOUS EVALUATION OF SERVICES

. . . ADEQUATELY PREPARED PERSONNEL

GUIDE TO MAJOR CHANGES - SB 1870

- Completes statewide implementation of Master Plan during 2-year transitional period, 1980-81 and 1981-82. (Section 56195)

- Requires county superintendents to submit to SPI a county-wide plan for special education. Designates Special Education Service Regions. (Section 56031)

- Requires local plans. (Section 56200)

- Designates multidisciplinary personnel to perform assessment. (Section 56322)

- Requires parents' rights be attached to assessment plan. (Section 56321)

- Prohibits referral until after regular education resources considered and/or utilized. (Section 56303)

- Changes statement regarding nonpublic schools. (Section 56365-d)

- Designated IEP team (1 level instead of 2). (Section 56341)

- Clarifies provisions regarding the IEP. (Section 56345)

- Requires procedural safeguard indefinitely. (Sections 56500 - 56507)

- Changes in evaluation, audits, and information -- authorizes special evaluation study on program costs. (Sections 56600 - 56607)

- Provides funding pursuant to service-based apportionment formulas.

- Requires County Superintendent to allocate revenues to special education programs.

FILMSTRIP - 1870

7 PRINCIPLES

1 - FREE APPROPRIATE PUBLIC EDUCATION

2 - NON-BIASED ASSESSMENT

3 - I E P

4 - LEAST RESTRICTIVE ENVIRONMENT

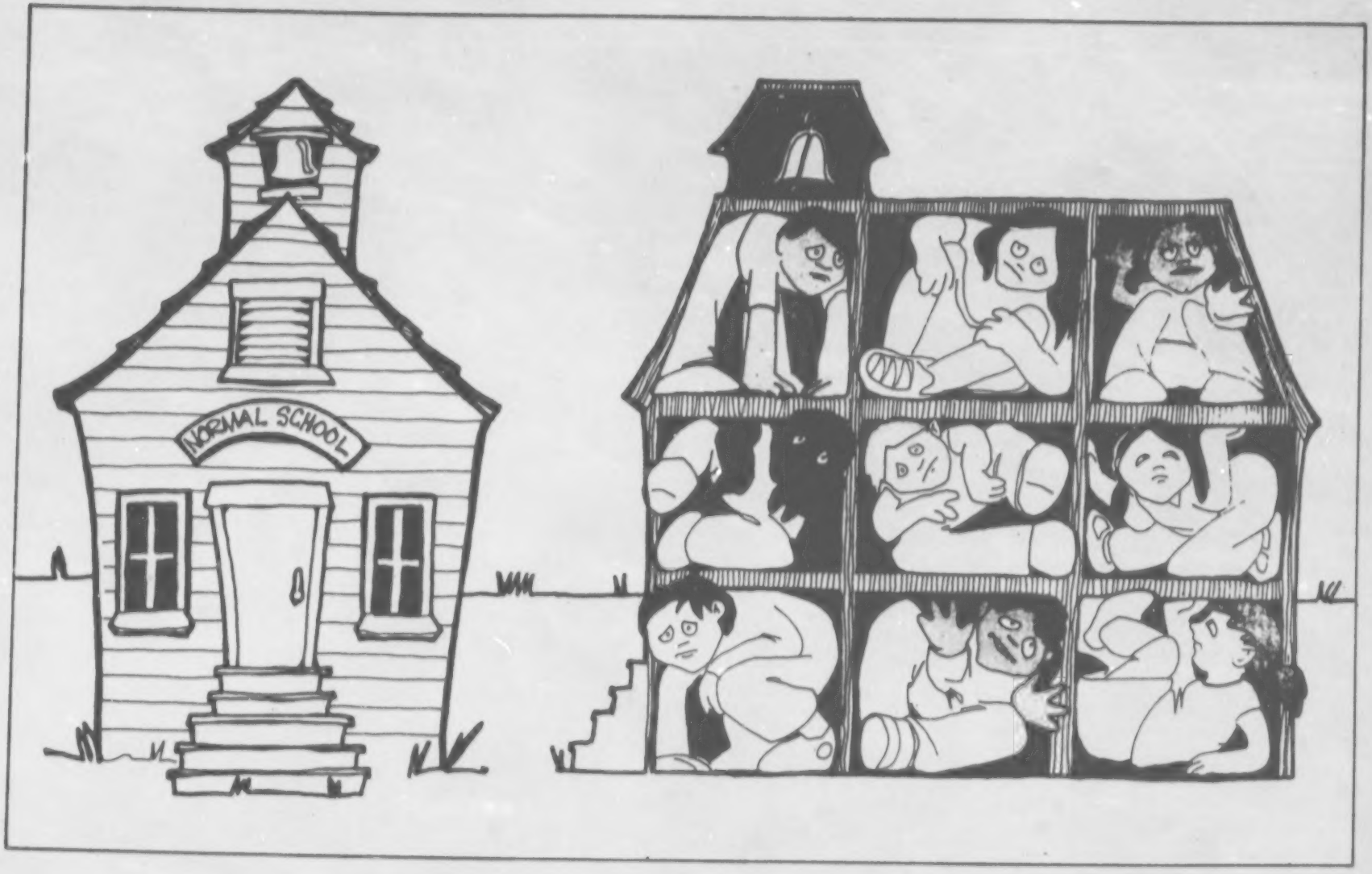
5 - SERVICES PROVIDED ACCORDING TO NEED

6 - EQUAL PARENT INVOLVEMENT

7 - DUE PROCESS PROCEDURES

OH-5

OH-6


NORMAL SCHOOL

8-HO

ADULTS AND EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS TAP PARTICIPANTS' EXPERIENCE AS A MAJOR RESOURCE FOR LEARNING.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS ARE A SOURCE OF NEW EXPERIENCE FOR PARTICIPANTS.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS HELP ADULTS CONVERT EXPERIENCE INTO LEARNING.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS HAVE EFFECTIVE CHAIRS OR A GOOD MANY COFFEE BREAKS.

ADULTS AND EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS ARE SENSITIVE TO ADULT HABITS AND TASTES AND ACCOMMODATE AS MANY AS POSSIBLE.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS DEVELOP GREATER ABILITIES IN SELF-DIRECTION AND RESPONSIBILITY.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS AIM FOR ONE HUNDRED PERCENT SUCCESS.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS MAKE APPROPRIATE USE OF AUTHORITY.

ADULTS AND EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS TEND TO BE BOTH PROBLEM-CENTERED AND ENTERTAINING.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS ARE SENSITIVE TO THEIR SPACE IN THE ADULT WORLD; THEY ARE NOT HOGGISH.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS ACHIEVE A BALANCE BETWEEN TIGHT PRESENTATION AND THE TIME NEEDED FOR LEARNING INTEGRATION.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS ASSIST ADULTS IN SELECTION.

ADULTS AND EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS CONCERN THEMSELVES WITH THE NEEDS OF THEIR PARTICIPANTS.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS ATTEMPT TO MEET THOSE NEEDS IN WAYS THAT ARE HELPFUL TO THE GROUP.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS ARE A BLENDING OF MANY KINDS OF BEHAVIOR.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS ASSIST ADULTS IN MAKING BEHAVIOR CHANGES.

ADULTS AND EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS ASSIST ADULTS IN BECOMING MORE COMPETENT.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS MAY ASSIST ADULTS IN MAKING CHANGES IN THEIR EMOTIONAL FRAMEWORKS WHEN THERE IS A HIGH DEGREE OF SAFETY, MUTUAL COMMITMENT, AND CHOICE.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS EXERT SOME CONTROL OVER STIMULI.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS FOCUS ON MORE THAN ONE SENSING SYSTEM.

ADULTS AND EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS PENETRATE THE FILTERS.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS ARE BUILT ON APPROPRIATE REINFORCEMENT.

ADULTS ARE PEOPLE WHO NEED A VACATION, AND EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS ACCOMMODATE THIS NEED.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS DO NOT ADD TO THE BARS, NEITHER DO THEY PRY OPEN THE DOORS.

ADULTS AND EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS ARE PREPARED FOR EMOTIONAL RELEASE IF IT OCCURS.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS ARE FILLED WITH SUCCESS EXPERIENCES.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS ALLOW THEM TO KEEP PACE AND GROW WITH CONFIDENCE.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS ARE NOT BOUND TO BASICS.

ADULTS AND EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS GET ON WITH HELPING ADULTS LEARN TO COPE WITH PRESENT PROBLEMS.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS ARE LITTLE CONCERNED WITH REMEDIAL EDUCATION.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS GO BEYOND HELPING ADULTS COPE; THEY HELP THEM LEARN TO LIVE AGAIN.

EFFECTIVE WORKSHOPS ARE CONCERNED WITH DEVELOPING NEW COMPETENCIES; THE "WHY'S" OF THE PAST ARE SOMEONE ELSE'S CONCERN.

LEADERSHIP

CONTROL

OH-17

PEOPLE PROBLEMS

HIDDEN AGENDAS

BROKEN RECORDS

ATTACKERS

DOUBTERS & HEADSHAKERS

KNOW-IT-ALLS & DOMINATORS

RESISTERS

PARAPHRASING

RULES:

1) NO INTERRUPTIONS, EXCEPT FOR CLARIFICATION OF WORD OR PHRASE

2) BEFORE ADDING AN IDEA, REPEAT SENDER'S MESSAGE.

WELL, IT'S LIKE THE KING WHO REIGNED FOR 10 YRS. HE HAD A BEAUTIFUL CASTLE AND HIS PEOPLE . . . .
RAINED? A KING ?
YOU MEAN HE WAS SPRINKLED?

OH-19

QUESTION FORMATS

LEADING

FACTUAL

DIRECT

GENERAL

AMBIGUOUS

PROVOCATIVE

REDIRECTED

CONTROVERSIAL

YES OR NO

THE 5 W'S

(WHY/ WHEN/ WHAT/ WHERE/ WHO)

KIND OF ANSWER YOU WANT . . .

HOW ANSWERED . .

OH-20

GAME POSITIONS

SET

OVERLOAD

CONFLICT

ROLES

(IDENTITY)

CONSUMER

LEADER

FACILITATOR

RESOURCE

OTHER

FLEXIBILITY AND EXPECTATIONS

OH-21

NONJUDGMENTAL RESPONSES

OH-22

LISTENING

ACTIVE	PASSIVE
UNDERSTAND BETTER	LISTEN
REPEATING MESSAGE	NO INTERRUPTION
VERIFICATION OF INFORMATION (WORD OR PHRASE)	
USE PARAPHRASING	

OH-23

WELL IT'S
LIKE THIS ---
IS THERE A CURE?
HOW BAD IS IT?
WILL I LIVE?
WHO WILL HELP?
THIS IS
YOUR
LIFE
IEP

EFFECTIVE EXECUTIVES

KNOW WHERE THE TIME GOES

FOCUS ON OUTWARD CONTRIBUTIONS

BUILD ON STRENGTHS

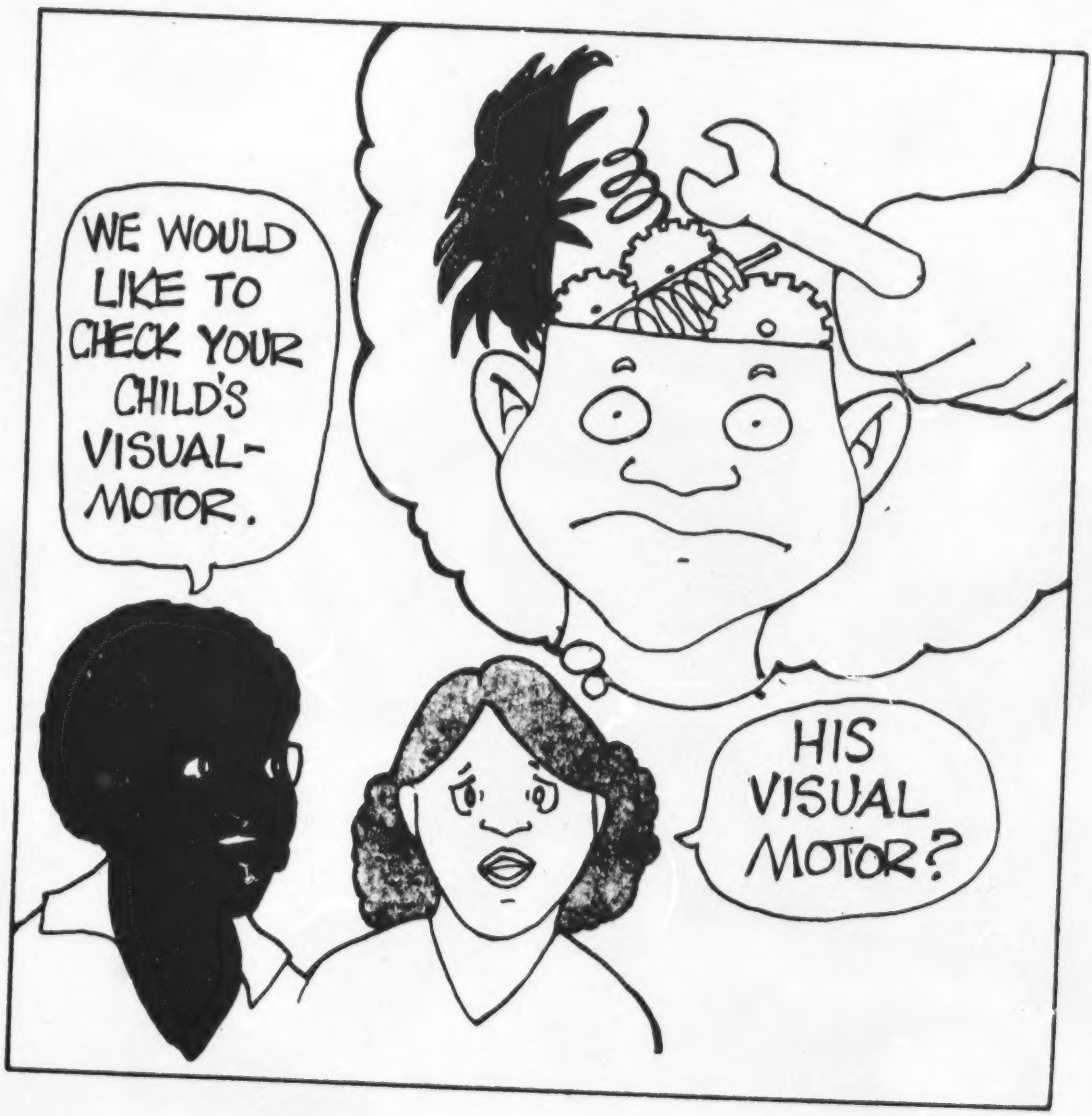
CONCENTRATE ON A FEW MAJOR AREAS

MAKE EFFECTIVE DECISIONS

OH-25

WE WOULD LIKE TO GIVE YOUR CHILD A W.R.A.T.
A RAT!?!

WE THINK YOUR CHILD NEEDS A BENDER.
A BENDER?


WE WOULD LIKE TO CHECK YOUR CHILD'S VISUAL-MOTOR.
HIS VISUAL MOTOR?

WE WOULD REALLY LIKE TO GIVE YOUR SON A W.I.S.C.-R.
WISKER?

GOALS OF CONTENT AREA INSTRUCTION

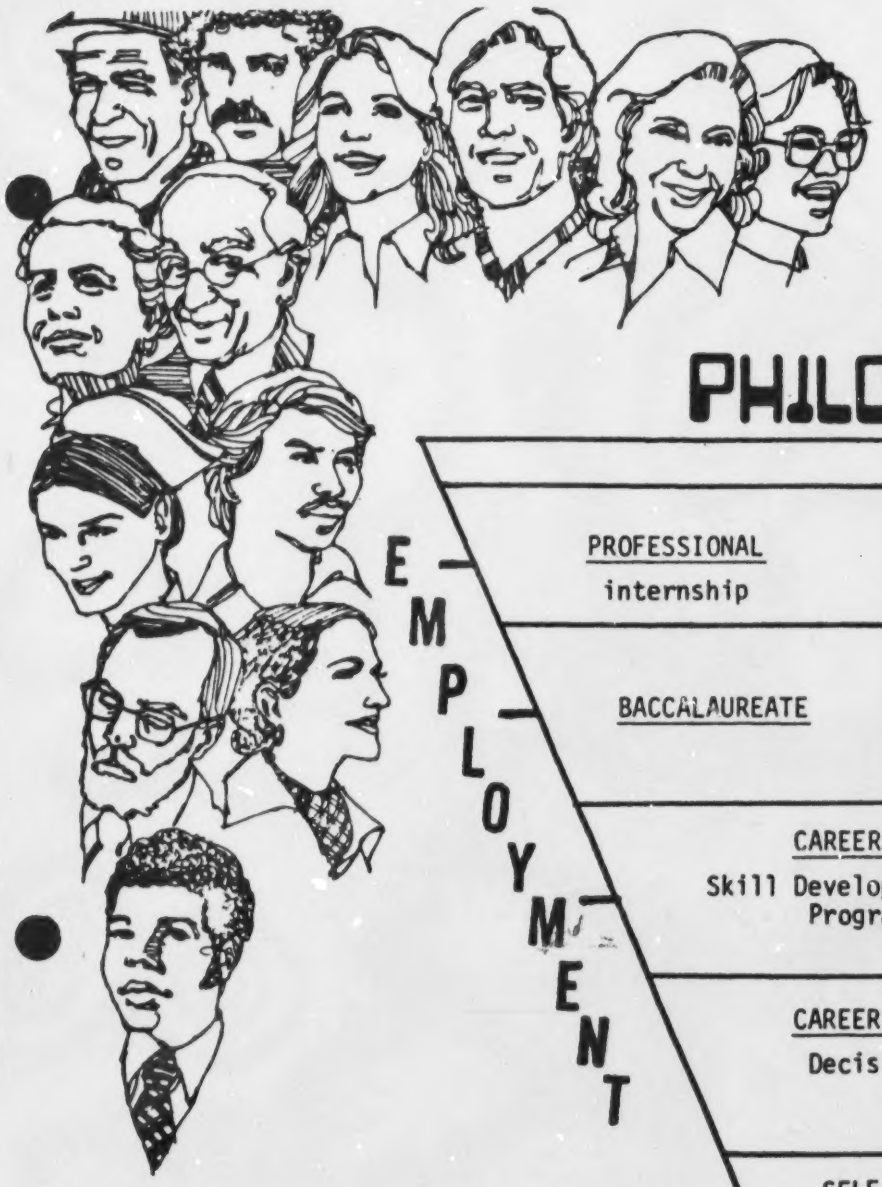
1. MASTERY OF SALIENT INFORMATION

2. ACQUISITION OF CRITICAL READING-STUDY SKILLS

3. FOSTERING INDEPENDENCE

CHARACTERISTICS OF CONTENT AREA MATERIALS

1. VARIETY OF ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES
2. VOCABULARY WHICH IS DIFFICULT TO DECODE AND UNDERSTAND
3. UNIQUE TYPOGRAPHIC FEATURES
4. GRAPHICS
5. HIGH CONCEPT DENSITY
6. NUMEROUS DEMANDS ON READER



PHILOSOPHY

EMPLOYMENT

PROFESSIONAL
internship

CONTINUING EDUCATION

BACCALAUREATE

TECHNICAL TRAINING
apprenticeship
on-the-job training

POST GRADUATION

CAREER PREPARATION
Skill Development, Self Analysis, Program Planning

12
11
10

CAREER EXPLORATION
Decision making

9
8
7

SELF AWARENESS
Who am I? My Likes and Dislikes

6
5
4

ENVIRONMENTAL AWARENESS

3
2
1
K

THE OREGON WAY

FRANK R. CROSS, Elementary School Careers Education; A Humanistic Model, Columbus Ohio: Merrill Publishing Company, 1974.

OH-32

CAREER EDUCATION

OVERVIEW

WHAT CAREER EDUCATION IS

CAREER EDUCATION IS A CONTINUUM OF LEARNING EXPERIENCES BEGINNING WITH AWARENESS, ORIENTATION, EXPLORATION AND EXTENDING THROUGH THE DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIFIC SKILLS, KNOWLEDGES, AND ATTITUDES NECESSARY FOR SUCCESSFUL EMPLOYMENT.

CAREER EDUCATION IS THE PROCESS OF SYSTEMATICALLY COORDINATING ALL SCHOOL, FAMILY, AND COMMUNITY COMPONENTS TO FACILITATE EACH INDIVIDUAL'S POTENTIAL FOR ECONOMIC, SOCIAL, AND PERSONAL FULFILLMENT.

THE "OFFICIAL" DEFINITION ADOPTED BY THE U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION IN 1974: "CAREER EDUCATION IS THE TOTALITY OF EXPERIENCE THROUGH WHICH ONE LEARNS ABOUT AND PREPARES TO ENGAGE IN WORK AS PART OF HIS/HER WAY OF LIFE."

WHAT CAREER EDUCATION IS NOT

CAREER EDUCATION IS NOT A SUBSTITUTE FOR BASIC EDUCATION. RATHER, IT BRINGS MEANING TO THE CURRICULUM BY MAKING INDIVIDUALS MORE AWARE OF THEMSELVES, THEIR POTENTIALS, AND THEIR EDUCATIONAL NEEDS.

CAREER EDUCATION IS NOT VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

SOME DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CAREER EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Career Education	Vocational Education
Focuses on paid and unpaid work (e.g., volunteer, leisure and recreation, homemaking)	Focuses on paid work (although unpaid work is referred to in the Vocational Education Amendments)
Emphasizes general career skills	Emphasizes occupational preparation
Promotes cognitive, affective, and psychomotor skill development	Promotes psychomotor skills for entry into occupational society
Meets the needs of the learners	Meets the needs of the labor market
Is a system-wide effort, not specific courses or an instructional program	Is defined in terms of courses and is an instructional program
Is taught by all educators	Is generally taught by vocational educators
Focuses on all instructional programs at all levels of education	Focuses on the secondary and post-secondary levels
Involves family, agencies, and business/industry	Involves primarily business/industry